

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

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ASSOCIATION NOTES AND EDITORIAL COMMENTS

THE next annual meeting of the Association will be held in the Stevens Hotel, Chicago, on Thursday, Friday, and Saturday, April 11, 12, and 13, 1935. These dates are about one week earlier in the month than were the dates of the annual meeting last year. The change, however, was made deliberately, since to have adhered rigidly to custom would have placed this year's meeting in Holy Week—certainly a very inappropriate time for many members.

JESSUP, REED AND WRISTON HONORED

At a meeting of the Executive Committee held in Chicago October 27, 1934 Doctors A. A. Reed and H. M. Wriston, both former presidents of the Association, were elected to honorary membership in the Organization. At a meeting of the Committee held a few months previously Dr. W. A. Jessup was also elected to like membership. These are fitting recognitions of distinguished services.

PLANS FOR NOMINATING PRINCIPALS

For many years the Commission on Secondary Schools has had what are called "State Representatives" in each of the states comprising the North Central Association. As a rule these local or state agencies have in each instance con-

sisted of three individuals: the high school inspector of the state university, the person in the State Department of Education charged with the supervision of secondary education in the state, and a well-known high school principal. The first two of these officials held office in the Association ex officio; the third was usually nominated by the officers of the Commission, on recommendation of leaders from the various states.

At a recent meeting of the Executive Committee of the Association a new plan for securing nominations of these various high school principals was adopted. The exact wording of the resolution thus approved reads as follows.

The state Association of Secondary School Principals, or if there is no such organization, then the state Association of Superintendents and Principals in any member state may designate to the Executive Committee the secondary school principal to serve as a member of the Commission on Secondary Schools. In the administration of this provision the Secretary of the Association shall, in September or October of each year prior to the occurrence of a vacancy in the secondary school membership of the Commission on Secondary Schools, inform the proper state officials of the impending vacancy and urge that a nomination be submitted to the Executive Committee. If no such nomination is submitted before the annual meeting of the Association, the vacancy shall be filled in the usual manner.

Under the new plan, it will be noted, each state has the right to nominate a representative of its North Central Association committee through action by one of its own state organizations. The North Central Association hopes that each agency to which the privilege has been granted will avail itself of the opportunities thus afforded it. By so doing, a closer bond than ever will be established between the central governing body and the local units.

ONLY 215 COPIES REMAINING

Less than two years ago the Association published its curriculum studies in book form under the title *High School Curriculum Reorganization*. Two thousand copies were printed and then the type was distributed. At the present writing all but 215 copies of this publication have been sold. This surely is gratifying news for the Commission and justifies their faith in the venture.

THREE RESOLUTIONS

At a meeting of the Chicago High School Teachers Association held on the evening of October 10, 1934, official action was taken expressing approval of the North Central Association's policies in reference to the enforcement of desirable standards. The resolutions adopted were later presented to the Executive Committee of the Association and were gratefully accepted and ordered filed. The resolutions read as follows:

BE IT RESOLVED that this meeting called by the CHICAGO HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION on the evening of October 10, 1934, extend its thanks to Mr. A. W. Clevenger for coming to Chicago to present to Chicago high school teachers the position of the North Central Association and the University of Illinois on overloading of high school teachers and the consequent crippling of educational opportunities for high school pupils.

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED, that this meeting extend its appreciation and thanks to the North Central Association for its action of last spring

in refusing to accredit certain newly organized senior high schools and for its recommendations and warnings to other high schools, and

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED, that this meeting call upon the North Central Association, as the last line of defense of high school teachers against intolerable working conditions in high schools, vigorously to maintain and enforce its standards and recommendations.

EUREKA, MONTANA, SCHOOL ACCREDITED

At a meeting of the Executive Committee held in Chicago, October 27, 1934, The Lincoln County High School, Eureka, Montana was reinstated as a member of the Association "with continuous accrediting since 1924." It appeared from the evidence presented that an injustice had been done to this school by the Association a year ago. Its annual report had been duly filled out and sent to the proper state authorities. However, in some unexplained way, the report was lost. In consequence, the Commission, when it met, had no recourse under the regulations but to omit the school from the accredited list. The Executive Committee, therefore, is exceedingly glad to make amends for its mistake in the only way it can—that is, by reinstating the school to full membership and "with continuous accrediting since 1924."

ERRATUM

For the past two years the lists of accredited Secondary Schools have stated that the Golden High School, Golden, Colorado has enjoyed continuous accrediting since 1915. Mr. A. C. Cross, Chairman of the North Central Association state committee for Colorado, writes that this date is an error. Instead of 1915 the date is 1905. Just how the error crept into the records originally and just how it happened that it was not discovered and corrected before this time is not clear. However it is a pleasure for the QUARTERLY to set matters right even at this late hour.

AN OFFICIAL SUGGESTION

At its meeting in Chicago in October the Executive Committee took cognizance of the fact that the Committee on the Study of Standards for Secondary Schools was not only relatively small in size but that its membership was drawn almost entirely from the list of University or State Department Inspectors. To the Executive Committee it seemed unfortunate that such should be the case. Consequently by resolution it voted to "transmit to the Commission on Secondary Schools a request to the effect that the Committee on the Study of Standards for Secondary Schools be enlarged to include a substantial proportion of high school administrators—and also that the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education be represented on this Committee."

This resolution was duly forwarded to Mr. Hunt, Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools, and will doubtless receive proper attention shortly.

COLLEGE LEVEL MEASUREMENTS

Elsewhere in this issue of the QUARTERLY is published an article written by Dr. Mark E. Hutchinson of Cornell College and entitled "Educational Measurements at the College Level." The article is printed on the advice of President Gage of the Higher Commission. However, Dr. Gage is not thoroughly convinced that all of the suggestions made in the paper are feasible. Commenting on the article taken as a whole Dr. Gage writes:

The paper is an able defense of the theory that entrance to college and progress therein should be determined by a nation-wide system of achievement tests in subjects thought to be essential for a liberal education.

Personally I may say that what you want is desirable but maybe, because of existing conditions, rather impossible. A standard for administration of a uniform system of admissions is not available. It would be difficult to establish

such a standard. If such a standard were low it would be useless. If it were high it would eliminate 50 per cent or more of students now accepted. This, of course, may be a desirable end.

An objective system of determining progress national in scope would mean that if the same method of measurement is set for all students, then the same content and methods and emphases in instruction would be necessary in all colleges. If Coe and Cornell and Amherst were to use the same measuring instrument in economics we would assume some similarity in course content and in instructional emphases. If we were to accept students from high school on the basis of subject matter achievement very few students would be admitted from many high schools. Failure to gain admission could not probably be charged to the students applying for admissions.

Your article raises certain questions and does so with force and clarity. It is thought provoking. Where thought is aroused and where problems are stated solutions may sometimes be forthcoming.

REVEREND ALBERT CHARLES FOX¹

The North Central Association mourns the untimely death of a distinguished educator.

The Reverend Albert Charles Fox was for several years a member of the Committee on revision of standards of the North Central Association and in this capacity he won the high respect, admiration and warm friendship of his colleagues in the Organization. An outstanding teacher, he always upheld the highest ideals in education and was an energetic and zealous worker for higher standards and improved methods. Father Fox held many positions of honor and trust in the educational world. He was Dean of Xavier College of Liberal Arts from 1913 to 1918; President of Champion College, Prairie du Chien, Wisconsin, from 1918 to 1922. He then became president of Marquette University and was transferred from there to the dean-ship of John Carroll in 1928. In addition

¹ This appreciation was prepared by President B. L. Stradley.—THE EDITOR.

to his association with the North Central Association he held membership on committees of various educational groups. He was past president of the Ohio College Association (1931) and president of the department of colleges and secondary schools of the Catholic Educational Association and chairman of the committee on standards. He was a member of the national committee on college standards of the American Council on Education. Dr. Fox was one of fifteen prominent educators who represented the Liberal Arts college movement and he was a member of the Board of Directors of the Adult Educational Association of Cleveland. In 1928 Columbia University conferred on him the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws.

The citation of President Nicholas Murray Butler, as he conferred the degree, contained a remarkable tribute to Dr. Fox:

As a member of the Society of Jesus pursuing an earnest and devoted career of scholarship, religious teaching and educational administration; exercising large influence in the movement to raise the standards and improve the methods of college and university work throughout the United States, easily taking rank with the foremost educational leaders of the land.

Dr. Fox was a loyal friend and a good companion. His kindness of heart and jovial spirit endeared him to all. Education was his life work and the measure of success in his chosen field is attested by the affection of his former students and the esteem in which his confreres held him.

We honor and remember him for his personal greatness and his constructive achievements.

CERTAIN CRITICISMS ANSWERED

During the past two or three years, various criticisms have been directed against the North Central Association and a number of suggestions have been

made that the Association disband during the period of depression with the view to reorganizing after the schools have solved their problems which have resulted from the depression. The following letter of recent date is a sample, all identifying proper names being deleted.

Mr. A. W. Clevenger
University of Illinois
Urbana, Illinois

My dear Mr. Clevenger:

A few days ago an article appeared in a local newspaper asking the question, "Who is this North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges that it can tell our board of education that it must spend . . . [a certain amount] to employ extra teachers to lower the per capita membership in high school classes which, it states, is 1.5 pupils too high? What assurance have we that next year this association may not issue the order that class membership must be reduced to twenty-five?"

I am writing this letter to you because I believe you have your hands in on the North Central Association. A question very similar to this has been raised at . . . It has been discussed at some length by their Board of Education. These are doubtless not the only places and the situation prompts me to write you.

Don't you believe that this is the time for such an organization as the North Central Association to fade out of the picture as far as enforcing standards is concerned? If they can see fit to do this for two or three years, do they not stand a better chance of surviving to continue the good work which has been done by that organization for the past twenty-five years? Isn't it better to yield at a time like this when the public mind is in a frame to combat anything so long as a school man is associated with it? In view of what has already happened to our state legislature, wouldn't it be a perfectly possible thing for some fool legislature to prohibit the affiliation of the public schools or state colleges with such an extra-legal organization as the North Central Association?

I believe the boys who are on the board of control right now need to get their ears to the ground and hear the news from the country. Agitation today on anything that has to do with schools or school men appears to be fine pastime. The situation here appears to me to be an invitation for someone to start something.

Yours very truly,

Mr. Clevenger replied to the letter quoted above in the following way:

I wish to acknowledge the receipt of your letter dated . . . , 1934.

As the Secretary of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, I am glad to have the opportunity to comment on the matters which were mentioned in your letter.

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is a voluntary organization of high schools and institutions of higher education, which was founded in 1895. Its purpose was then, and ever has been, to establish closer relations between the secondary schools and the institutions of higher education within the North Central States and such other territory as the Association may recognize. It is entirely a mutual society, the constitution providing that "All decisions of the Association bearing on the policy and management of secondary schools and institutions of higher education are understood to be advisory in character."

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has no legal standing. It is not compulsory for any high school or institution of higher education to be accredited by the North Central Association. In fact, no school is accredited until the officials in charge of the school have made application for accrediting. In short, the Association owes its great strength to its voluntary membership, its representative character, its responsiveness to changing conditions, its ability to enlist the leadership in education in the North Central States, and its emphasis on quality.

Standards for the accrediting of high schools and, also, for the accrediting of institutions of higher education have been carefully worked out through a period of years. Before any standard can be adopted, the individual high school or institution of higher education has had an opportunity to vote on its adoption. Each of the colleges and secondary schools has one vote, and the officers in charge of these schools have the right to attend the meetings of the Association.

Whenever those in charge of a high school in any community feel that the standards for accrediting are not just or that it is a hardship on the community to maintain standards, they can withdraw the school from membership in the Association or they can help the Association by their vote to make needed changes in the standards.

The question of passing legislation in the

various states prohibiting membership in the Association has been discussed from time to time but nothing of any great importance has ever been done by state legislatures toward standing in the way of an organization whose chief purpose is to help in improving the work of the schools. When it becomes known that membership in the Association is purely voluntary and, also, when it becomes known that the graduates of unaccredited institutions are handicapped when in competition with the graduates of the accredited schools of another state, the opposition has not made any progress.

When the effects of this depression were felt quite generally throughout the country in the various school communities, there were some who felt that it would be a good policy for the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools to disband until after the depression was over, leaving the high schools and colleges without any of the help which the Association might be able to give. If the North Central Association had followed this advice, the excellent work which has been accomplished during the past two or three years would not have been done, and the North Central Association would not have been in a position to reorganize after the depression was over. No one would have any confidence in an organization which withdrew from the field as soon as troubles appeared on the horizon. For example, the police department of a city may have done excellent work for many years but it does not disband when crime becomes prevalent with the idea of reorganizing as soon as criminals have ceased their activities and when the city seems to be a safer place for policemen. The churches in the community may have rendered excellent service over a period of years but very few of them ran away when the troubles brought on by this depression appeared, with the idea of coming back as soon as conditions had improved.

During this period of depression if it had not been for such accrediting agencies as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, our schools would have been flooded with poorly trained, politically appointed teachers. The North Central Association has a standard on the preparation of teachers and this is one of the standards which has been maintained quite generally throughout the territory of the North Central Association. The various State Committees for the North Central Association and the officers of both the Commission on Secondary Schools and the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education have been willing to cooperate in every possible way with

those in charge of schools which, because of the financial situation, have found it difficult to maintain the standards for accrediting as set forth by the North Central Association. Whenever a community finds that it is unable to meet certain standards for the accrediting of secondary schools, the school officials have the privilege of presenting their case to the North Central Association. In fact, school officials are welcome to present such problems at any time. It is probably true that certain officers of the Association sometimes have been somewhat lacking in tact in their eagerness to maintain standards, and it sometimes happens that their efforts along this line have been resented by those in charge of the local school. The North Central Association, however, would not sup-

port one of its representatives in making unreasonable demands on any school.

A large proportion of the officers of the North Central Association have direct and numerous contacts with both the public and private schools and are thoroughly familiar with the ways in which depression has affected education.

I doubt if there has been a time in the history of the North Central Association when there are so many opportunities for it to render service. It would be a fatal mistake for the Association to overlook the splendid opportunities which it has at the present time for improving the work of the schools.

Yours very cordially,

A. W. CLEVENGER, *Secretary*

TO ALL NORTH CENTRAL PRINCIPALS

The conference of High School principals and other secondary school administrators with the members of the Commission on Secondary Schools and others interested has proved itself one of the most helpful features of the annual North Central Association meetings since the first one was called by Dean Edmonson three years ago. Last spring almost two hundred persons met for this informal discussion. Another one is scheduled for Thursday evening, April 11, 1935. The place will be announced at the Commission meetings.

In order that the questions and problems discussed may be your questions and problems will you not send as soon as possible to the Chairman of the Commission any questions that you wish discussed. Questions on standards, policies, regulations, interpretations, adaptations to your own conditions, anything in fact that needs clarifying in connection with the work of the Association will be in order.

F. L. HUNT, Culver, Indiana

Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL TERCENTENARY

CALVIN O. DAVIS

Chairman of the Tercentenary Planning Committee

ALL students of education know full well that the Boston Latin Grammar School was the first school of secondary rank established in America. It was founded in 1635.

From the germinal idea that produced this school has come the whole gigantic system of public secondary education found in the United States today. To be sure the specific aims and objectives of these higher schools have changed greatly during the period of three hundred years since 1635. So also have the curriculum offerings and the forms of organization and administration connected therewith. But the early dominating ideal of a public school supported and controlled by the state or one of its subdivisions persists today in full vigor and gives body and character to our whole educational structure.

At the outset this old-time Latin School was notably aristocratic in its purpose and highly selective in its constituency. It was designed solely to prepare boys (but not girls) for college. Its curriculum consisted almost wholly of Latin, Greek, and religion. Gradually, however, changing social, economic and political conditions made this type of school inadequate for the growing republic. Consequently in time it yielded prestige to another kind of institution, the academy.

For the period of another hundred years this newer model of secondary education flourished notably. By the year 1850 its numbers had reached 6,000 schools. Indeed its popularity knew no bounds. With its liberal curriculum, its varied forms of socialized activities, and

its policies of flexible administration it appealed to all classes. But above all else its prestige was enhanced by its attitude toward girls. The academy stood for coeducation.

Nevertheless, despite its many progressive features, the academy had its drawbacks. It was not truly a public school; it was not controlled and supported by state agencies. Consequently it too, like its predecessor the Latin School, finally fell into disfavor, and gradually gave place to a third type of secondary institution—democracy's high school.

It is the proud boast of this latest form of secondary school that it seeks to provide equal cultural advantages for every normal youth in the land. It lays its emphasis not upon preparation for college exclusively nor indeed upon preparation for any remote and predetermined goal in life. On the contrary it sets for itself the task of assisting each individual to become the sculptor of his own character, and to hew out the niche or to carve the pedestal which he himself chooses to occupy in the world of affairs. In other words, the aim of the high school is to discover talents and abilities, arouse ambitions and interests, establish ideals and attitudes, and fashion ways of thinking and acting such as will bring the most complete satisfaction to the individual and the most lasting benefits to society. In short, democracy's secondary school seeks to fit youths for active participation in the social, the cultural and the practical life of the times and to inspire them to strive ceaselessly for ever more desirable human advancements.

Because of its professed aims the public school today is the most widely established and the most popular social agency for the perpetuation of culture which the state possesses. Catering to no separate class interests but opening its doors to youths from all ranks of society, it is truly cosmopolitan in its organization, administration and functioning. Indeed the secondary school system of the United States is the nation's most unique contribution to the cause of world culture, world understanding and world peace and brotherhood. No country in all history has ever seen the like of its daring and boldness in this respect. Other countries have provided facilities for secondary education for certain privileged groups of citizens; it has remained for the United States to furnish such opportunities for everyone.

According to the latest estimates of the Federal Office of Education in Washington there are today slightly fewer than 26,000 high schools in the land and these are at present ministering to the needs of approximately 7,000,000 adolescent youths. What an army these boys and girls constitute! They are indeed the second line of our national defense but at the same time they comprise the first line of our country's potential leaders, reorganizers, and reformers.

Seven years ago the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association, recognizing the great significance of the tasks which the high schools of the land were performing, took note of the fact that the year 1935 would mark the three hundredth anniversary of the founding of such schools in America. Consequently, on the motion of Dr. Harold E. Warner, now principal of the L. G. Hine Junior High School, Washington, D.C., the Department (then in session in Boston, in March 1928) voted unanimously to give nation-wide recognition to the

event during the tercentenary year 1935. A planning committee was appointed by the President, Milo H. Stuart of Indianapolis, and this committee immediately set to work to devise ways and means of instituting a celebration program. The hope was that not only should the national leaders in the field of secondary education be enlisted for the commemorative work but also that the pupils in every high school in the land should be called upon to participate in it.

The Planning Committee as named by Mr. Stuart was constituted as follows:

C. O. DAVIS, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan—*Chairman*.

F. L. BACON, Principal, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois.

BANCROFT BEATLEY, Professor of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

L. W. BROOKS, Director of Secondary Education, Wichita, Kansas.

H. V. CHURCH, Executive Secretary, Department of Secondary School Principals, Chicago, Illinois

A. W. CLEVINGER, High School Visitor, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois

W. J. COOPER, U.S. Commissioner of Education, Washington, D.C.

THOMAS H. BRIGGS, Professor of Secondary Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City

JESSE B. DAVIS, Professor of Secondary Education, Boston University, Boston, Mass.

ERNEST G. HAPGOOD, Head Master, Girl's Latin School, Boston, Mass.

WILLIAM F. EWING, Assistant Superintendent Public Schools, Oakland, California

C. H. JUDD, Director of School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois

L. V. KOOS, Professor of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois

JOY E. MORGAN, N.E.A., Washington, D. C.

JOHN K. NORTON, Professor of Education, Columbia University, New York City

MERLE PRUNTY, Superintendent of Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma

MILO H. STUART, Assistant Superintendent, Indianapolis, Indiana

GEORGE M. WILEY, Assistant Commissioner, University of the State of New York, Albany, New York.

After several conferences and much correspondence the Planning Committee adopted the following basic proposals:

1. To initiate the celebration by means of a two-day commemorative program at the time of the annual mid-winter Department meeting in February 1935 and to carry the memorial activities forward at least to the end of school commencement time in June of that year.

2. To make the celebration center about the historical phases of secondary education but not to neglect entirely contemporary and prophetic aspects.

3. To initiate and foster the writing of numerous historical studies on secondary education and, if feasible, to publish and distribute brief digests of these studies to all schools.

4. To arrange, if possible, for an elaborate historical pageant depicting the evolution of secondary education in America and to present this pageant before the Department at the time of its mid-winter meeting in 1935.

5. To organize a number of sub-committees and charge each one with a specific task in furthering the celebration program in every section and district of the United States.

In order to stimulate the preparation of pertinent historical studies a list of suggested subjects was distributed far and wide and a general invitation was extended to scholars to write upon them. Many of these studies are now being made.

The proposal of the Planning Committee to present an elaborate pageant before the Department in 1935 was, for various reasons, found to be impracticable and therefore was abandoned. However the suggestion of having a number of sub-committees charged with the directing of various commemorative features has been carried out in a most extensive and effective manner. The Chairman herewith takes occasion to express to each and every one of these co-workers his appreciation and thanks for their indefatigable and unremunerated services. The list of the various sub-committees appointed, together with a brief statement of the duties of each, follows.

I. GENERAL PUBLICITY COMMITTEE

M. R. ROBINSON, Editor of *Scholastic*, Pittsburgh, Pa., Chairman; W. D. BOUTWELL, Editor of *School Life*, Washington, D. C., Assistant Chairman; and the chairmen of all the other sub-committees mentioned below.

The function of this committee is to plan in general for disseminating information about the Tercentenary, prepare and publish a souvenir book featuring the celebration, and initiate and supervise the publicity undertakings in all other ways that seem desirable and feasible.

II. COMMITTEE ON HISTORICAL STUDIES AND DIGESTS

E. D. GRIZZELL, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa., Chairman; JESSE B. DAVIS, Boston University, Boston, Mass.; G. L. JACKSON, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan; CARL JESSEN, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.; L. V. KOOS, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois; JOSEPH ROEMER, Peabody College, Nashville, Tenn.; W. R. SMITHEY, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia.

The function of this committee is to encourage the preparation of numerous historical studies relating to secondary education, to edit these studies when written, and to arrange for the publication and the dissemination of the studies either as digests or as complete volumes.

III. COMMITTEE ON N.E.A. PAGEANT

P. J. CAMPBELL, Superintendent of Schools, Boston, Mass., Chairman; J. B. DAVIS, Boston University, Boston, Mass.; WALTER DOWNEY, Principal English High School, Boston, Mass.

The function of this committee is, if possible, to arrange for an historical pageant featuring secondary education at the time of the meeting of the N.E.A. in February, 1935.

IV. COMMITTEE ON COOPERATION WITH THE BOSTON CELEBRATION COMMITTEE

J. L. POWERS, Boston Latin School, Boston, Mass., Chairman; and the three members of the committee on N.E.A. pageant.

The function of this committee is to coordinate the work of the local committee of the Boston Latin School Association and the work of the Department's Committee on the N.E.A. pageant.

V. COMMITTEE ON PUBLICITY THROUGH EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINES

M. R. ROBINSON, Editor of *Scholastic*, Pittsburgh, Pa., Chairman; MARCUS ROSENBLUM,

Assistant Editor of *Scholastic*, New York City.

The function of this committee is to prepare or edit articles and notices respecting secondary education and the Tercentenary Celebration and to secure their inclusion in numerous educational magazines.

VI. COMMITTEE ON PUBLICITY THROUGH GENERAL MAGAZINES AND THE DAILY PRESS

WALTER DOWNEY, Principal, English High School, Boston, Mass., Chairman, and others selected by him.

The function of this committee is to supply the daily press and the semi-popular magazines with suitable material for publication respecting the Tercentenary Celebration and its purpose.

VII. COMMITTEE ON PUBLICITY THROUGH RADIO BROADCASTS AND MOTION PICTURES

T. F. TYLER, Secretary, National Committee on Education by Radio, Washington, D. C., Chairman; CLINE M. KOON, Senior Specialist in Radio Education, United States Office of Education; F. H. LUMLEY, Research Associate, Radio Division, Ohio State University; ALLEN MILLER, Director, Radio Department, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; G. P. DRUECK, Principal, Barnard School, Chicago, Ill.; JOY E. MORGAN, Editor of the *Journal of the National Education Association*; Washington.

The function of this committee is to arrange for radio talks featuring the Tercentenary Celebration and its purposes.

VIII. COMMITTEE ON PUBLICITY THROUGH PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS

MERLE PRUNTY, Superintendent of Public Schools, Tulsa Okla., Chairman; ISABEL RONAN, Tulsa Central High School, Tulsa, Okla.; MARIE B. RONAN, Green Bay, Wisconsin; REED JEROME, Tulsa Central High School, Tulsa, Okla.

The function of this committee is to prepare programs or outlines for discussions relating to the celebration, and suitable for presentation before Parent-Teachers Associations throughout the country.

IX. COMMITTEE ON PUBLICITY THROUGH STATE EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS

E. T. CAMERON, Secretary, Michigan Education Association, Lansing, Michigan, Chairman; and others to be appointed by him.

The function of this committee is to bring to the attention of the officers of the various State Educational Organizations the plans and purposes of the Tercentenary Celebration and

to secure, if possible, a conspicuous place for featuring secondary education and its significance in the educational programs for 1934 and 1935.

X. COMMITTEE ON PUBLICITY THROUGH SERVICE CLUBS

L. L. FORSYTHE, Principal, Ann Arbor High School, Ann Arbor, Mich.; Chairman; W. S. MILBURN, Principal, Louisville Male High School, Louisville, Ky.; B. J. RIVETT, Principal, Northwestern High School, Detroit, Mich.; E. E. MORLEY, Principal, Heights High School, Cleveland, Ohio; FRED L. BIESTER, Principal, Glenbard Township High School, Glen Ellyn, Ill.; WILLIAM E. McVEY, Superintendent, Thornton Township High School and Junior College, Harvey, Ill.

The function of this committee is like that of committee number nine, except that it will deal with such clubs as Rotary, Kiwanis, Lions, Exchange, and other luncheon groups.

XI. COMMITTEE ON HIGH SCHOOL PAGEANTS

H. C. LYSETH, Department of Public Instruction, Augusta, Maine, Chairman; WILLIAM E. WING, Principal, Deering High School, Portland, Maine; D. W. MACLEAN, Principal, Berlin High School, Berlin, N. H.

The function of this committee is to prepare sample programs or suggestion outlines for historical pageants touching on secondary education, and capable of being presented by high school pupils.

XII. COMMITTEE ON HIGH SCHOOL COMMENCEMENT EXERCISES

W. W. HAGGARD, Superintendent of Schools, Joliet, Ill., Chairman; E. D. GRIZZELL, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.; Professor HAMRIN, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois; W. H. BRISTOW, Assistant State Superintendent, Harrisburg, Pa.; J. E. ROEMER, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

XIII. COMMITTEE ON ESSAY CONTESTS AND HIGH SCHOOL ASSEMBLIES

L. W. BROOKS, Superintendent of Schools, Wichita, Kans., Chairman; H. V. CHURCH, Secretary of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, Chicago, Ill.; PAUL HARNLY, High School, Grand Island, Nebr.; H. V. KEPNER, West High School, Denver, Colorado; W. H. BURTON, East High School, Des Moines, Iowa.

The function of this committee is to encourage the staging of local high school essay

contests in which the significance and meaning of secondary education is treated by pupils in the high schools, and to prepare sample programs for high school assembly meetings which will seek similar ends.

XIV. COMMITTEE ON COMMEMORATIVE POSTAGE STAMPS

Honorable HORATIO ABBOTT, Ann Arbor, Michigan, Chairman; M. R. ROBINSON, Pittsburgh, Pa.

The function of this committee is, if possible, to secure the issuance of a special series of postage stamps commemorative of the Tercentenary Celebration by the federal government.

XV. COMMITTEE ON HIGH SCHOOL PAPERS

CLYDE R. MILLER, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, Chairman; PAUL A. HEDLUND, Peekskill High School, Peekskill, N.Y.; MARGARET M. SULLIVAN, South High School, Cleveland, O.; HELEN E. BLAISDELL, South High School, Minneapolis, Minn.; JOSEPH M. MURPHY, Columbia Scholastic Press Association, New York City.

The function of this committee is to secure publicity for the Celebration through the various papers and annuals which high school students are accustomed to publish. The thought is that news items, historical essays, and write-ups of various other topics of interest to local communities shall be given attention in these publications.

Contrary to the early hopes of the Committee, the Department meetings for the year 1935 are not to be held in Boston but in Atlantic City. Consequently all tentative plans for coordinating the Celebration activities of the national agencies with those of the local constituency of the Boston Latin School had to be abandoned. However the general initiatory program arranged for the February gatherings has in no wise been affected. This program is given in full below. It will be observed that joint sessions of the Department of Secondary-Schools Principals are to be held with (1) the Department of Superintendence, (2) the Department of Secondary Education, and (3) the Department of High School Supervisors and Directors. In addition

to the joint meetings the Department of Secondary-School Principals will hold one commemorative session of its own. It will be observed further that a wide range of topics is to be discussed at these meetings and that speakers of national reputations have been secured.

PROGRAM FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Atlantic City, New Jersey

February, 1934

(All addresses are limited to 25 minutes in length)

GENERAL THEME: *The Tercentenary Celebration of Secondary Education in America*

TUESDAY, 9:30 A.M., FEBRUARY 25

C. O. DAVIS, Chairman of the Program Committee, Presiding

THEME: *Secondary Education in Retrospect*

1. The First Secondary School, JOSEPH L. POWERS, Head Master, Boston Public Latin School, Boston, Mass.
2. The Philosophies That Have Guided Secondary Education in the Past, GEORGE M. WILEY, Assistant Commissioner, University of the State of New York, Albany, New York
3. Great Leaders in Secondary Education in the Past, WILLIAM J. COOPER, Professor of Education, George Washington University, Washington, D.C.
4. Three Hundred Years of Education for Girls, MRS. LUCY M. WILSON, Principal, S. Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

TUESDAY, 2:00 P.M., FEBRUARY 25

(Joint meeting with the National Association of High School Supervisors and Directors)

WILLARD N. VAN SLYCK, Second Vice-President, Presiding

THEME: *The Secondary Schools at Work Today*

1. The Unique Characteristics of Secondary Education Today, WILLIAM MCANDREW, Editorial Department, *School and Society*, East Setauket, New York.
2. What the Private Secondary Schools Are Contributing to American Life Today, BURTON W. FOWLER, Head Master, Tower Hill School, Wilmington, Dela.
3. Responsibilities of Public Secondary Education in an Age of Leisure, R. D. LINDQUIST, Director of the University School, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

4. Forces that are Handicapping Secondary Education Today, JAMES B. EDMONSON, Dean of School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan

TUESDAY EVENING, 7:45, FEBRUARY 25

(Joint Meeting with the Department of Superintendence)

E. E. OBERHOLTZER, President of Department of Superintendence, Presiding

THEME: *Secondary Education as an Essential Factor in a National Development Program*

1. The Historical Development of Secondary Education in America, CHARLES H. JUDD, Chairman of the Department of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois
2. The Philosophy Which Must Guide Secondary Education Today, THOMAS H. BRIGGS, Professor of Secondary Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City
3. The Financial Policies Which Must Be Worked Out for Secondary Education, SIDNEY B. HALL, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Richmond, Virginia
4. The Public and the Program of Secondary Education, GEORGE F. ZOOK, Director, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.

WEDNESDAY, 9:15 A.M., FEBRUARY 26

(Joint Meeting with the Department of Secondary Education)

HARRISON C. LYSETH, First Vice-President, Presiding

THEME: *Special Aspects of Secondary Education*

1. Secondary School Curriculum Changes During the Past Three Hundred Years, GEORGE S. COUNTS, Associate Director, International Institute, Columbia University, New York City
2. Changes in Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools During the Past Three Hundred Years, HARL DOUGLASS, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota
3. Three Hundred Years of Changes in Teacher Training for Secondary Schools, WILLIAM WETZEL, Principal, Central High School, Trenton, N.J.
4. A Teacher in the Secondary School, Then and Now; Miss ANNIE C. WOODWARD, Somerville, Mass.

The aim and purpose of this entire Tercentenary Celebration movement is

to bring forcefully and clearly to all American citizens the part which Secondary Education has played (and conceivably will continue to play) in the political, economic, social, and cultural life of the times. To do this the Committee considered it desirable to stress the aims and purposes of that division of our school system, to exhibit factual and specific evidence of the diverse achievements which the high schools of today are reaching, and to enlist the continued moral and financial support of the people—individually and collectively—in the program of social service which these schools are designed to render. For surely the influence which the secondary schools exert upon individual thought, public opinion, and social habits must inevitably effect national security, national welfare and national advancement generally.

Or, to state the aims and purposes of this commemorative Celebration in a slightly different form, they may be listed as follows.

1. To give due recognition to an important educational event.
2. To bring to the attention of the American nation—and to do this in an impressive manner—the true significance of free public secondary education.
3. To help both educators and laymen to clarify their thinking respecting the forms for administering secondary education and to enlist their cooperation in an effort to work out a more efficient system of secondary schools for the future.

On February 23, 1935 a very much enlarged issue of the magazine *Scholastic* will be printed and presented to the authorities in every high school of the land. This memorial number will not only contain historical and contemporary accounts of various secondary schools and secondary school movements, but will be profusely illustrated. All individuals interested in furnishing copy for this magazine or in knowing more about the

undertaking should address *Scholastic*, Pittsburgh, Pa.

A second memorial project of the Celebration Committee will be a bound copy of all of the addresses which will be delivered at the Atlantic City meetings in February. It is expected that this book will be issued in an especially unique and attractive form and will be available to the public March 1, 1935.

A third production of the Planning Committee is the *Celebration Handbook*. This book is available at present. It contains general and specific information about the Celebration program, and in particular sets forth numerous suggestions whereby individual schools may participate in the anniversary undertakings. Here also are listed the various awards which are open to high school

boys and girls for meritorious work done in numerous distinct fields of endeavor. Every educator in America should have a copy of this Celebration Handbook. It is sent free to all applicants. Address *Scholastic*, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Other features of the Anniversary program include a motion picture presenting dramatic episodes of secondary education, radio broadcasts, a high school art exhibit, a series of high school tercentenary debates, a series of outlined high school plays and pageants, a number of model commencement day programs for high schools, and a considerable number of additional undertakings of a like sort.

The Celebration program promises to be an outstanding event in the history of American Secondary Education.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ATHLETICS AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION¹

BEGINNING in 1926 the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education became convinced that the field of athletics was of sufficient importance to warrant the appointment of a standing committee for the purpose of considering the many and peculiar problems of this student activity. With the exception of the three-year period 1930-1933 when an actual inspection was made of each member college, the Committee has deemed it best to secure data from the triennial reports. This year marks the resumption of that policy and hence this report will not be as comprehensive as the report of a year ago. Moreover, the Committee has always felt that the tone and atmosphere were more symbolic of athletic policy than a detailed presentation of facts and figures. In other words, the latter have been used as indices to interpret the former. With this general statement in mind we will consider the work of the Committee for the current year.

The triennial athletic reports of sixty-four colleges and ten junior colleges in the states of West Virginia, Ohio, Illinois, and Minnesota were examined this year by the Committee. As a result of last year's inspections and in consequence of recommendations of this Commission, four other colleges were required to submit further evidence that their athletic policies were in keeping with the standards of our Association. Two other colleges were reinspected by a special committee and a report filed with the Board of Review.

The discussion may be divided into

four parts—first, the presentation of pertinent facts; second, general observations; third, conference relations; and fourth, standards.

OUTSTANDING FACTS OF 1933-34 TRIENNIAL REPORT

Without attempting to analyze each of the questions raised in the questionnaire, a report may be made of the most outstanding results.

Student Aid. As is well known the three types of student aid are scholarships, loans, and employment. Under the last form of aid, employment by sources other than that provided by the college is not included. The data indicate that a few colleges favor athletes rather than non-athletes in one or more of these forms of student aid. Of the colleges reporting this year at least ten seem to favor the athletes. For the most part this group consists almost entirely of smaller colleges but it should also be noted that many of the larger institutions fail to give specific information—usually because such statistics are not available.

Control. In at least ten colleges (not the same institutions referred to above) the faculty control is in the minority. In these instances it is usually a matter of student predomination with the remaining committees largely in the control of alumni.

Scholastic Standing of Participants in Athletics. For the first time, this year's questionnaire included questions pertaining to the academic record of the participants in athletics. Specifically the colleges were asked to state their point hour ratio requirement for graduation and to give the percentage of their eligibility list

¹Made to the Commission on Institutions of Higher Learning, Friday, April 20, 1934.—THE EDITOR.

with an average less than this standard. We found approximately eleven colleges where the academic standing of a large proportion of the athletes was below the graduation average required and in a few cases the results were startling.

In order to indicate the conditions found, the findings may be shown for a few schools classified according to athletic conferences.

Conference A. At least five colleges reported that over 25 per cent of their athletes were below the graduation requirement. Specifically the percentages were 29, 33, 34, 35, and 35.

Conference B. Again five colleges reported that over 25 per cent of their athletes were below the graduation requirement: 31, 35, 39, 45, and 45.

Conference C. Two colleges reported that 21 and 25 per cent of their athletes respectively were doing work of less than graduation quality.

Conference D. This is a conference of larger schools and there was a greater tendency for these colleges to fail to give the information. One stated that the facts were not available; one failed to answer the question; one reported that they had no athletes in this category; and one reported 5 per cent of their athletes failed to measure up to the standard.

Conference E. This conference consists of five schools and three of these reported that none of their athletes had an average under the graduation requirement. The others reported 6.5 per cent and 18 per cent.

While these cases may be too few to draw any general conclusion, it was found that those conferences which have relatively high eligibility rules tend to produce better academic results. This Association has agreed to cooperate with the conferences and here is a point where the cooperation can be especially effective.

Miscellaneous. While the reports show

that all salaries have in general been reduced, the familiar picture of the athletic staff receiving higher proportionate salaries is still common. Also it appears that a few colleges are increasing the number of games in their schedules. Perhaps this is caused by the fact that a single game now yields a smaller income than was true a few years ago.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

In addition to the above facts the Committee has observed three general areas where our Association can be particularly effective. First of all is the matter of control. It is manifestly important for every college to have direct control of its athletic activities. As developed in last year's report—failure to secure the maximum benefits of athletic relationships to the life and development of the student arises, for the most part, from failure of faculty and administrative authorities to exercise intelligently and continuously adequate powers which they now hold.

Second, the academic training of those engaged in teaching of athletics and physical education should be on a par with that in other departments. This thought was developed at great length in the report of a year ago. Coaches and physical education directors should be employed upon the same basis as other members of the faculties in our colleges and universities, both with respect to training and compensation, and the process of appointment should follow the normal channel used in the appointment of other faculty members.

Lastly, many of the abuses and evils in athletics can be eliminated by placing greater stress on the academic performance of students participating in athletics. Not only do we refer merely to setting up a standard but, in addition, those participating should be advised of the possible scholastic effects of excessive activity. This advice should be given

before it is too late. The athletic reports this year show that in some cases there is need for definite faculty control of academic matters in relation to athletes. Herein, we believe, lies the greatest opportunity of our Association for constructive service in this particular branch of education. This is true because academic performance is the most pronounced point of liaison between athletics and the educational process.

CONFERENCE RELATIONS

On December 16, 1933, Mr. Earl D. Strong, Secretary of the Missouri Valley Conference, petitioned this Association for recognition of that Conference and expressed its desire to coöperate and to conform with the principles enunciated in our standards. The petition consisted of the usual preamble and a statement of the eight standards and stated that the individual members (Butler University,

Creighton University, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Grinnell, Drake, and Washington University) had been investigated and found conforming to these general standards. The petition was signed by the responsible officers of the respective institutions.

Your Committee recommends the approval of this Conference.

STANDARDS

During the year the Committee on Athletics and Physical Education conferred with the Committee on Revision of Standards and presented a report which was incorporated in the new Statement of Policy. The nature of the Committee's recommendations will be found in the general report of the Committee on Standards.

IRVING MAUER

J. D. HILL

C. E. FRILEY

B. L. STRADLEY, *Chairman*

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON REGIONAL CONFERENCES¹

Joint Committee of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education
and the Commission on Secondary Schools

THE Committee on Regional Conferences was appointed in April, 1932, for the purpose of giving currency to the findings of the National Survey of Secondary Education. The committee originally constituted was Henry M. Wriston, Chairman, E. A. Spaulding, and W. W. Haggard. Upon Mr. Wriston's election to the presidency of the Association, Registrar D. M. Love of Oberlin College was appointed to the committee.

The present committee has followed the plans of the original committee with this one exception: it has emphasized the necessity of calling the attention of secondary school faculties to the careful study of the Survey monographs. Early last fall a meeting of the committee was held at the University of Chicago in which it was decided that the brochure entitled, "Conferences on the National Survey of Secondary Education," prepared by Mr. Carl A. Jessen of the Office of Education in April, 1933, should be distributed to the North Central committees in the several states of the Association. The brochure outlined the types of conferences actually held or planned up to and including April, 1933, the staff and advisory groups engaged in the Survey, the titles of the monographs, the authors, and the cost of each.

With the distribution of this brochure, state chairmen were strongly urged to plan conferences and to insist on faculty study of the findings of the Survey, especially since a majority of the monographs was available. Many of the states have been successful in their attempts at ar-

ranging conferences and faculty discussions. Articles on the Survey have been published both in the Oklahoma State Department Bulletin and in the journal of the state teachers' association. It is expected that findings and their implications for Oklahoma will be mimeographed and sent to the high schools to be used in conducting local studies in professionally conducted faculty meeting groups. Conferences will be held during the latter part of the summer and the early part of next fall in Oklahoma. The Council of Administration for Kansas had round-table discussions of the Survey on February 2 and 3 of this year. Last spring a gathering of administrators in Arizona was held for the purpose of a preliminary discussion of the Survey, at which time another gathering was planned for this spring. The State Superintendent of Arizona has called a meeting of administrators for two days next fall, just prior to the meeting of the state teachers' association, to consider further the Survey. The High School Supervisor of West Virginia reports that he is making use of the Survey monographs throughout the state. At the June meeting of the Ohio Education Association last year the monographs available at the time were discussed. Very recently one of the members of the Committee on Regional Conferences spoke before the conference of superintendents and principals at Columbus. The North Central Committee in Ohio is making plans for bringing the monographs to the attention of the secondary schools of that state.

Last fall the monographs were presented in a discussion at the Indiana

¹Made to the Commissions on April 19, 1934.—
THE EDITOR.

Principals' Conference. A symposium in which the findings of six monographs were presented in mimeograph form was held. In Wisconsin, during October, all the high school principals, and most of the superintendents, met in small group-conferences for the purpose of considering the Survey findings. The state department expects to continue calling attention to the Survey reports as a basis for curriculum reorganization. In South Dakota the Survey will provide the program of the Secondary Education group of the state education association this fall. The Survey was stressed at the meeting of the North Dakota Education Association last fall. The state committee is urging the counties in North Dakota to compare the findings of the Survey with the existing situation there. In Montana, it is reported that the monographs are being used extensively by high school faculties and, also, for round-table discussions of the high school section of the state education association.

In three distinct meetings of the Wyoming Education Association, the Survey has been presented. The high schools in Montana are buying the monographs for faculty discussions. In Colorado, the superintendents are using the monographs for faculty discussions. A digest or review of the monographs was given at the spring conference of superintendents and principals at Boulder the latter part of March. Iowa secondary schools have purchased monographs for faculty consideration. Copies of President Henry M. Wriston's address on the Survey before the Wisconsin Association of Secondary School Principals last fall have been sent to Iowa

North Central secondary schools. Arkansas hopes to give considerable attention to the findings of the Survey next year. Strong efforts in behalf of faculty study of the Survey monographs in New Mexico have been made; and, also, the matter has been presented to the state teachers' association. The director of secondary schools in Minnesota is advising superintendents and principals to purchase the Survey monographs for purposes of faculty consideration. The Illinois High School Conference has given considerable attention to the Survey, including an address by Commissioner Cooper. Also, the Judd Club, a group of secondary-school principals in and about Chicago, has given over several of its meetings this school year to the study of specific monographs.

These facts gathered from the various states of the North Central Association territory indicate that the efforts of the committee for the past two years have not been futile. Continued activity among the North Central state committees in behalf of a more thorough understanding of the findings of the Survey during the year 1934-1935, since twenty-six of the twenty-eight monographs are now available, is strongly recommended. The committee urges that more conferences and round-table discussions with the cooperation of higher institutions be held and that principals purchase the complete set of the monographs for the teachers' stack of professional books in their school libraries.

E. A. SPAULDING

D. M. LOVE

W. W. HAGGARD, *Chairman*

FUTURE SOCIAL TRENDS AFFECTING EDUCATION¹

WILLIAM F. OGBURN

University of Chicago

IN THE course of my investigations for the Recent Social Trends, I became somewhat interested in future trends as well as past trends. In regard to the future, H. G. Wells, so I noticed in a London paper, recommended the replacing of some of our history teachers by professors of foresight. I fear, however, that proposition will suffer the fate of one I heard of made by a wealthy man to an eastern college. He offered to endow a chair in the professorship of common sense, but they could not find anybody to fill it; so they had to give up the idea. This year I have been teaching a course at the University in which I try never to use a verb in the past or present tense. I have become accustomed, therefore, to looking into the future. In regard to education and social trends of the future, education may be seen from the point of view of trends within the field of education or from the point of view of trends influencing education but coming from without. I do not propose to deal with trends in the field of education this morning because I know you know more about that than I do. I planned to speak of the trends without the field of education because I may be able to bring to you as educators something new from sociology. I shall not, however, make very much of an interpretation as to what these trends may mean for education because, again, I realize that you are in a better position to make these interpretations than I am.

The first point that I will mention is trends in population. Future trends in

population are becoming pretty well advertised today so that most of us know that our population is increasing with smaller and smaller increments each year. Indeed it looks as though we are headed for a stationary population in about 1960 or 1970 of 155,000,000 people. I do not know just what that may mean for education. To some, no doubt, it may mean a declining opportunity, which reminds me of a paper I once read in the manuscript by a statistician on the subject of happiness. His general thesis was that the way to bring about more happiness in the world was to increase the population, because only the people could be happy and if you did not have a lot of people you could not have a lot of happiness. I persuaded him not to publish this paper so it is not available if you wanted to consult it. The declining increase of population does slow up the opportunity for teachers, I am sure. This slowing up of the rate of increase of population operates to diminish for a time the proportion of the young and to increase the proportion of the old. The population is usually charted to show age in what is called a population pyramid; the few old people being at the top and the many young at the base. The age distribution of the population forty years from now looks more like a square box than a pyramid.

One meaning of this change in age distribution, with its diminished proportion of young and its increased proportion of old, may be illustrated by some observations I recently made on the educational situation in the state of Georgia as compared to that in Illinois. I found the total

¹An address delivered before the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education at the annual meeting, April 20, 1934.—The Editor.

number of adults in Georgia who work for an income, that is to say, in good times. Then I found the number of children that had to be educated. I then divided the number of children by the number of working adults to show how many children a working adult would have to educate. Then I did the same thing for Illinois. The educational burden in the number of people to be educated in Georgia per working adult is about twice as great as the number in Illinois because there are so many children in Georgia and so few per adult in Illinois. So in the future many adults and a small number of children ought to have some significance for the schools. But there are other factors at work, and no conclusion should be drawn from any one of these alone.

The change in population as it influences the family is my next subject. The family used to be the great economic institution of civilization; but it has shrunk to small dimensions, due largely to the fact that steam required a boiler that was too big for a dwelling house, necessitating the building of a large house called the factory. The result is that the household has been losing its functions to the factory. One of these is the educational function, which could be handled by the family pretty well on the farm where manual training was natural and physical education was easily available and vocational training was right at hand. But the school teacher is helping the home to decline because he competes with the parent in exercising authority over the child and influencing the personality of the child—a sort of substitute parent for a time. The question is whether or not in the future, this trend of education away from the home will go further in the direction of experiments in Russia. The trend is undoubtedly for children to go to school earlier. When I went to elementary school six years was the age of beginning school and quite a few did not enter until eight

or nine years old; but each decade the census shows more and more children of five years of age in school. Twenty per cent, according to the last census, of those five years of age are in school; and the so-called progressive schools are taking them at earlier ages, sometimes three and sometimes two. I knew an editor of a magazine who put her child in at six months. The trend is in this direction, but quantitatively it does not amount to much at the present time. With one in every eight married women employed outside the home, and with the chances of this figure reaching one in four or five, or one in three, I suspect the tendency for the schools to assume jurisdiction over the child's education at earlier years may be expected to increase. The family is reported these days to be a sort of parking place. During their waking hours the members of the family spend their time somewhere else: in the schools, on the streets, in the clubs, in the stores, in the factories, or in the offices. Naturally, if this tendency continues, the family will lose more of its educational functions. Electricity may bring some of the family functions back to the home. It has diminished the ice industry, I am told, and put the manufacture of ice in the home; the first time the home has taken work away from the factory. While steam is the enemy of the home, electricity is its friend. It seems quite, however, probable that a child, during the first two or three years of life, will continue to get most of its personality shaped by home influences.

The third topic is the trend toward the increasing volume of civilization. There are certain things about our culture which grow like an exponential curve; at least, they are now moving like compound interest. That is true of invention and is true of scientific discovery. Wilhelm Wundt, who died a decade ago, was the last man who knew everything; and

there will not be any more. The volume of knowledge is too large.

The question seems to me intriguing as to how the human race is going to assimilate all the information that is accumulating in this vast volume of civilization. Roughly, one might say that there are two paths whereby this might be done. One is through the path of specialization. If one person specializes in a part of the field of knowledge and another in a different part, then the population can master it; and I should imagine that the trend in specialization will increase. How much effect this trend may have on the liberal arts college is a question. How much differentiation will be made in the high schools is also a question, but I think the trend is leading us toward more specialized schools.

It is only fair to point out, however, that communication inventions are producing a standardized product, particularly with the assistance of advertising, mass production, and the movies so that local differences are being ironed out in the sections of the country. But I do not think that standardization and diffusion mean the diminution of specialization.

I am reminded of a language I used to hear something about when I lived in Portland, Oregon, called the Chinook jargon. Chinook is the name of an Indian tribe out there. The mouth of the Columbia River was a great trading center where the Salish Indians, the plains Indians, California Indians, Chinook Indians, the French, the Spanish, and the English all used to come to do business. They spoke different languages, and consequently the Chinook jargon grew up with a few words from each but understood by all. Our Chinook jargon will have the same pronunciation — Hart, Schaffner & Marx clothes, Arrow Brand collars, Stetson hats, Ford automobiles (I do not get any money for that statement), and other standardized devices.

We shall still have the specialization, however, just as the various peoples at the mouth of the Columbia River still had their special languages although they had a common language, too.

The other road by which we can assimilate this volume of knowledge is through the route of prolongation of education. Our period of schooling is a little longer each decade and each generation, and one certainly ought to contemplate the possibility of going to school for a still longer period of time in the future. That is one way of helping to assimilate this great volume of knowledge. The tendency to go to school for longer periods of time has been called the prolongation of infancy by John Fiske. It may take us up to forty or fifty years yet, to be followed by a year or so of efficiency before we set into a decline.

There is a counter tendency, however. More of our population are marrying and are marrying at earlier ages. I do not know how that can be reconciled or synchronized with the idea of a prolongation of schooling. Some of the people tell me that the married students get better grades than the unmarried ones. I do not know whether this conference had a report on that or not, Mr. Chairman. All the indications are that we shall have early marriages, and many of them in the future. Of course, this increase in early marriages might very well mean an adjustment of schools through the idea of adult education. Certainly, the general set-up of the situation does look forward to an expansion of adult education. Marriage and the prolongation of schooling could both exist through an adult education movement. The adult education movement has a great obstacle in the competition which recreation offers. I do not know how serious that is, but it always seemed to me that it is quite an obstacle to adult education. Perhaps I may have a personal prejudice on the

subject. I remember in 1912 I was engaged to undertake some extension work, as it was called (you now call it adult education) in one of the cities of the Pacific Coast. I was engaged to give a set of twelve lectures at a church on how to be a good citizen. That did not seem to be the most thrilling topic with which to entice an audience. This church, as I remember it, was on a corner; and on one side there was a Pantages theater, on the other a Keith's theater, and on the other a Paramount moving picture house, all brilliantly lighted. I used to stand and watch the crowds pour into these places of amusement, and then go in and talk to the half dozen sitting in the back rows of the church. I got the idea impressed upon me then that recreation competes with adult education. I have been trying to sugar-coat my adult education ever since.

There is a good deal to be said for the influence of the shorter hours of labor on adult education. There is a great deal of talk about leisure time now. Books are being published telling us how to use it. There is a good deal of exaggeration, however, of the amount of leisure time. I remember hearing a steel worker quoted on the subject once. He said he wished to God they would quit talking about it so much and show him a little. So the hours of labor are not so short as those that are sometimes quoted; but I suppose they will get shorter, although during the forty years before 1930 they were shortened only about fifteen per cent for the whole country.

With shorter working hours I suppose the apparently insatiable thirst of the human race for recreation will be slackened a little and, if and when, then adult education will have its day. It is very interesting to speculate (I must say it will be speculation because I haven't many facts to go on) on the question of whether this thirst for education will be slackened or not. It was a great thing in American

history when we put in the free public schools. It is very interesting to see the people coming over from the Old World wanting to make a new place for themselves, wanting to live a new life, wanting to get an education to rise in the world. We support our schools with a fervor. I do not know how that will be in the future. I suppose one ought to contemplate a slackening in the fervor for education. I imagine that if we do not change and adjust our school curriculum a little faster there will be quite a little loss of fervor for education. The external world, outside the schools, is changing pretty rapidly; and if we hang on to a number of survivals and cultural lags in the curriculum they will help to slow up the thirst for education.

It is said now that there are more white collar men being graduated from college than there are white collar jobs. My friend, Howard Odum, who writes books on the Negro, tells me that he gets some of his data from the colored porters at the railroad stations. He tells me that he has had his bags carried several times by a colored man who is also carrying an M.A. degree, and on one occasion he has had it carried by a man with a Ph.D. degree. Is that a harbinger of what is to come? We may have plumbers discussing Aristotle and Plato in the future in their leisure time.

My next topic has to do with the trends in our economic life. These trends are many, and I shall single out only one or two. The economic world is said to have solved the problem of production, and one of our popular writers has written a book on "The Economics of Plenty." This conquering of production is due in part to the efficiency movement, which has probably spread furthest in factories.

The efficiency movement in business began quite a number of years ago. Its most famous exponent was Frederick Taylor. This is a movement that is spreading, be-

ing diffused, as the cultural anthropologists say, around into other institutions. Government is responding and adopting efficiency devices. I presume it ought to make headway in the schools, and there might be expected really remarkable results in the future due to the efficiency movement.

Another tendency in business, I think, is the increase of wealth and income. This seems an odd remark to be made in the midst of a depression. I do not want to hold out any particular promises for the next two or three years, or to make any predictions even for four or five years; but over a quarter of a century one might expect more income per capita and a rise in the standard of living. That is due to a number of factors, population being certainly one, and invention another. The danger of our standard of living not being raised lies largely in our economic system; but that, I think, has been shown to be a fairly tough organization. I do not myself see any signs of any collapse, and I would not call what happened in the early nineteen thirties a near collapse of civilization.

This increase in wealth no doubt has something to do with education and its development in the future. Whether that will mean more money for the schools, however, is a question. One reason for doubt is that while there will be fewer students in the elementary grades (more in the third grade than in the second, and more in the second than in the first in a good many cities now) nevertheless, the expansion of the high schools to include eighty or ninety per cent of those of high school age, and thus the consequent expansion of college, will cost money. That is one factor that is not going to make easy money for the schools, even though there is more wealth.

The second big force here, also, is the competition of other services for the taxpayer's dollar. I have spoken of this point

once or twice before an audience of educational enthusiasts, and they seemed astounded that anything could compete with education in the demand for the dollar because education is so much superior to all other movements; but, unfortunately, some of the people in the outside world do not have that same enthusiasm.

For instance, there is not much doubt that the American people will go into social insurance. That will amount to about fourteen or fifteen per cent, if judged by European figures, of the total wage earning bill which will have to be paid, most of it to come out of taxpayers. No doubt as the government expands its functions there will be these greater demands on the taxpayer's dollar, so education will probably have to continue to fight for a hearing before the budget committee in the future.

My next point has to do with the expansion of government which I foresee. I make the point that three of the greatest social institutions which man has built up in his long rough road are declining in influence. These are the family, the church, and the local community. As a result, mankind has lots more freedom than he used to have because of the lessening influence of these institutions.

But two more are growing at a tremendous rate. These are government and industry. They are restricting our liberty somewhat. I have an idea that the human race will be freer, however, as a net result of the decline of the restrictions of the church, the local community, and the family, even if government and industry do increase these functions somewhat.

I do not know just whether this union of industry with government will fore-shadow anything having to do with the relation of business and industries to the schools or not. I do not see much of it on the horizon now, but it is quite to be contemplated that schools might be related

to industries one way or another: continuation schools, part-time schools, welfare work, or what not.

The last point is the trend on technology, invention, and its possible influence on education. Of course, most impressive is the growth of transportation. That has upset many well laid plans, because the automobile, the airplane, and the streamline cars we are putting on the roads shorten distances. That, of course, would have quite an effect on the distribution of colleges. They need not be scattered so much geographically. Undoubtedly there ought to be something for reflection here in a regional conference like this as to what a region may need. Invention is changing rural life, of course, a great deal. The farmers' children go to high schools in the villages.

The transportation question brings up the question of the distribution of graduate schools. If we move long distances rapidly and easily, a concentration of graduate schools in a few centers may be expected.

I need not push these implications, but surely it is important for the future. How much communication inventions may offer education is problematical also. It is easy to speculate on these inventions having a good deal of influence. The radio is making headway; television may do something yet.

I have often wondered about the talking picture. We have not had the talking picture, by the way, more than about

eight or ten years. It has been, I believe, in the past a little expensive for use in the schools. If the educational systems would take over the chain store idea, and if we could have mergers, we could have an economic system that would use the talking picture.

Another device which might be used, it is being advertised I notice in Science Service now, is the long running phonograph record. They sell these records now which will run half an hour, and at Chicago we are uneasy because when they get them to run fifty minutes we are a little bothered about technological unemployment among the professors. I think there are two or three devices that are being worked up now that will run a little longer than fifty minutes. I do not know whether that would change our system or not; but one might imagine very interesting effects of long-running phonograph records on the university organization, the need for classrooms, the utilization of the commons and the fraternity houses for lectures.

The elective system might be pushed a little further with the long-running phonograph so that students could cut off a lecture when it got dull. Then if these devices are developed in such a way that they get into talking books, that would affect the organization of the library and reference reading.

Undoubtedly, the impending changes mean still more revolutions in our educational system.

OUR YOUTH PROBLEM¹

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THE country is faced with many perplexing problems these days. Our first inclination is to turn to some governmental agency—Federal, State or local—for some quick solution. After a thorough examination of the situation the people who hope for an early solution, often realize either that no action can be secured or at least there is no hope of success without widespread education leading to popular acceptance of the proposed solution. Therefore they turn hopefully to educational administrators to go through the long process of educating in the schools of today the men and women of tomorrow who will be in a better position to do something about the problem in hand.

Hence in the long run the school teachers of yesterday determined our cultural and social status of today. The same opportunity and obligation to mould the civilization of the next generation faces us today. Such a responsibility does not belong exclusively to school boards and administrators. It is shared by the humblest teacher. What we are tomorrow will be worked out in the classrooms of the schools in Washington, D.C., in Chicago, and in the one-roomed country school in far-away Arizona. I have it in mind, therefore, to discuss with you one of our common problems with which we as school administrators and teachers need to be deeply concerned. I refer to what I choose to call "Our Youth Problem."

It is estimated that there are in this country at the present time 9,432,444

young people between the ages of 14 to 18. Of this number 5,531,000 or 58.6 per cent are enrolled in secondary schools. While this represents a great increase in recent years, it is to be remembered that two out of every five in this age group are still without regular school advantages. A large percentage of these young people are presumably in the competitive labor market.

When we consider the age group from which college students are drawn, we have a much more striking situation. While college attendance has also rapidly increased in recent years, naturally it has not kept pace with high school attendance. College attendance today is estimated at 1,155,000, which is only 12.7 per cent of the age group from which college students come. In other words, for every young man or young woman now attending college, there are seven who are not doing so and who, therefore, are out in the world of business, industry or agriculture in active competition with others who are older, who often have families to support, and who seem entirely capable of producing at least all of the physical necessities and conveniences in life. In effect, therefore, not only the youth of high school age but those beyond high school age for several years constitute a problem to which we should address ourselves most seriously. The fortunes of nearly 12,000,000 (11,854,000) boys and girls, young men and young women who are not now in school or college are at stake. Not less than 3,000,000 in the age group from 18 to 20 alone are not only out of school but out of work.

¹ A paper read before the Association at the time of its meeting in Chicago, April 20, 1934.—
THE EDITOR.

These figures do not by any means tell the whole story. There are thousands, possibly millions, in the high school age group who ought also to be so classified. Furthermore, Dr. O. E. Baker of the Department of Agriculture estimates that there are nearly 3,000,000 young people now on the farms who would under pre-depression conditions have followed the normal course of moving to the cities and towns. The fact that they have remained on the farms is small satisfaction because with the elimination of marginal lands and from the point of view of production they are not needed on the farms. In very large part, they represent a group with pent-up hopes who may be able to satisfy their wants in food and clothing but not their normal aspirations.

The State and Federal Governments have contributed to this situation. All States in effect forbid the employment of boys and girls under the age of fourteen in day labor in factories and stores. The minimum age in four States is 15 and in two States 16. Practically all States forbid young people under 16 to work at night in factories and stores or in hazardous occupations, day or night in mines or where dangerous machinery is involved. An Amendment to the Federal Constitution providing that "The Congress shall have power to limit, regulate and prohibit the labor of persons under 18 years of age," made slow progress toward acceptance at first. But now the depression has given a sudden impetus to it which brings the number of States accepting it to a total of 20. Only 16 more are necessary to make it a part of the Federal Constitution. Finally, and even more stringent, is the fact that approximately 60 per cent of the N.R.A. codes prohibit the employment of young people under 18. At first, we have a great sense of relief and satisfaction at the thought that the end of

child labor at last seems in sight. Then when we contemplate what is happening to a very large proportion of these young people we realize that mere prohibition, whether in this or other fields, does not solve the problem.

In considering this situation, it is well to keep both the psychological and physical factors in mind. Youth is a period in life when both young men and young women are active both mentally and physically. There is abounding physical energy which is calling for an opportunity to spend itself. If young people cannot be active at work they will find other means of working off pent-up energies in a hundred other directions, most of which are harmless but some of which are useless or misguided.

Then there is the natural optimism of youth. Nature seems to have provided an extra portion of desire to do good in the world in the minds and hearts of young people. It is not always apparent but it is a strong impelling force. Very few oldsters ever have nobler motives in life than the youngsters. All that youth wishes is a chance but it wishes that chance ardently. To deny that opportunity, to frustrate a fine motive, to refuse consideration relative to the aspirations of young men and women is not only unfair to the great army of youth but dangerous to the welfare of the whole country. For, failing to receive consideration, there is a strong temptation to dissipation, a weakening of initiative, and even the development of an anti-social attitude of mind. In the end, all of us will pay a heavy price for our lack of foresight and consideration.

The situation has already reached such a pass indeed that thousands of youth becoming discouraged and not wishing to be a further burden on parents or friends have taken to the road in search of work and adventure. In the single month of January, 1934, there

were registered in 36 States and the District of Columbia 105,979 destitute transients. These roving people come from everywhere and they are going everywhere, particularly in the Southern States. If Georgia may be used as an example, we find that 10 per cent are under 16 years of age; another 10 per cent is in the age group from 16 to 20; 17.5 per cent are from 21 to 24; in other words, 47 per cent or nearly one-half were under 25 years of age. If you assume that all of these wandering persons are men and boys, you are mistaken; 18 per cent or nearly one fifth of them are women and girls.

The tragedy of this situation is further revealed in the statistics of crime. In a single year, 1929-30, the number of persons from 15 to 17 years of age inclusive, imprisoned in State and Federal prisons increased 7.4 per cent; those in the 18 year old group, 8.2 per cent; and the 19 year old group, 10.3 per cent. The greater proportion of convictions for robbery, assault, burglary and larceny were young people between 21 and 24 years of age. Senator Copeland's committee on "rackets" reveals that the average age of our prison population is about 23 years and that the greatest single age group is 19, and the next largest 18 years of age. How can anyone doubt the extremely serious crime situation growing out of the unemployment of youth.

Such a situation calls for consideration and action. But before one attempts to discuss what has been done let us, if possible, state our problem as concretely as possible. The young people about whom we are talking have left school. Most, though not all left school because they chose to do so. For them "school" had no further attractions or possibilities. While some of these young people had no definite plans in mind, nearly all of them left school with the hope of going

to work. They desire to begin earning their own living and sooner or later most of them make plans to establish homes of their own.

At the present time, society is in effect saying to these young people that they are not wanted in industry, commerce, or business in competition with wage earners with families. Yet, on the other hand, some aspiring young people are unable to avail themselves of further educational advantages and others do not wish to do so, particularly of the type that now exists. In the latter case, we have therefore the problem of affording these young people an opportunity to work at something which is real, something which has further educational opportunities in it, and yet something which does not result in a product in competition with the great army of wage earners. Truly, it would seem as if we are faced with a paradox extremely difficult of solution.

Obviously, there is no single solution of this problem. I wish, however, to call your attention to several recent actions taken by the Federal Government which may offer some suggestions for the long future. In the first place, through the Emergency Relief Organization, money has been set aside for the part-time employment of the more capable college students. Approximately 70,000 of these aspiring young men and women are now being given an opportunity to earn a part of their expenses through college at the average rate of \$15 per month. It is certainly one of the cheapest means that could possibly be adopted of taking that many young people out of the competitive labor market while at the same time giving them an opportunity to improve themselves and the general level of society. Our testimony so far from the colleges is that the experiment has been eminently successful.

In the next place there are the Citi-

zens Civilian Camps with 1,468 units and approximately 300,000 men enrolled in them. A newspaper clipping from Chicago a few days ago told about several thousand young fellows in Chicago who had elbowed one another vigorously for an opportunity to enroll in the Conservation Corps. There must be something very attractive about this opportunity. This organization is now in the second year of its work. The men are required to work in the forests eight hours per day for five days each week, at a compensation of \$30 per month and their food, clothing and shelter. Twenty-five dollars of the \$30 is sent to their dependent families so that they have a very restricted amount of spending money.

These camps were established for the double purpose of providing relief on the one hand and conserving our forests and parks on the other. But they may ultimately prove to be far more significant than this. In the first place, they serve as a partial answer to the seeming paradox which I propounded earlier. The men are at work at a real job—not a set-up. Anyone who has ever grubbed bushes and sprouts, chopped wood, or sawed timber knows full well that the jobs are real enough. They are real in the further sense that a great social good will result but neither the individual laborers nor the results of their labor are in any sense in competition with existing industry, business or agriculture.

At the same time, the educational opportunities are really quite remarkable. For the first time in their lives, thousands of city boys are having first-hand experience in the great out-of-doors. The influence of this contact cannot be measured but its influence must be tremendous. At the same time boys from city and country alike are in a large proportion of cases having their first lessons in balanced rations and hygienic living. The evidence relative to the improved health

of these young men is very impressive indeed. Simple but helpful forms of recreation have added both to the improvement of body and morale.

To this situation in recent months has been added a more definite educational program. In about three-fourths of the camps there will be located camp educational advisers who will be assisted by one enrolled man in each camp. It will be the business of the Camp Educational Adviser on the one hand to teach classes or to lead discussion groups, and on the other to organize other educational opportunities suitable for the men in each camp. As much assistance as possible will be given to the camp advisers from Washington and by the educational supervisors located in each of the nine Army Corps Areas. In many instances, it will be possible for the camp educational advisers to avail themselves of the resources of colleges, universities or local school systems nearby.

It is impossible to predict what may come out of this great experiment but obviously it meets a number of the requirements for at least a partial solution of our youth problem. In other words, it places young men who cannot go on to college at a very useful form of real work which is not in economic competition with other wage earners in industry, commerce or agriculture and a respectable supplementary educational program is gradually being worked out for the men while they are so engaged. While the plan obviously is not a final solution of our problem, it gives us a good many things to think about. It may prove indeed to have real significance in the further development of our program of dealing with the youth problem.

In the end, however, the responsibility for dealing with this situation rests squarely on the regular school system of the country.

When the problem of unemployed

youth was being considered in Minnesota last fall, President Coffman and Superintendent Phillips issued a joint statement that had a ring of reality to it: "Thousands of youth," they declared, "face idleness and discouragement at that time of their lives when normally they would be finding useful employment. Some of them are already adrift, detached from their homes and from the established habits of society. As individuals they face an uncertain future; collectively, they constitute a grave danger to the future welfare and security of the state. The best thing to be done with young people is to put them in school."

The plain truth of the matter, however, is that as yet our educational system is not able to take care of that part of the problem which lies outside the realm of higher education. As yet the secondary schools accommodate less than 60 per cent of the boys and girls of high school age. In the rural areas, not more than 40 per cent attend high school. The colleges enroll only 12 per cent of the age group from which college students are drawn.

Much has already been attempted in the American high school toward the solution of this problem, but so far it is totally inadequate. Let us take, for example, the rural situation. According to the census of 1930 there were 1,176,454 farm boys from 14 to 20 years of age. In 1932-33, 162,806, or 13.8 per cent of this group were enrolled in all-day or day-unit classes in vocational agriculture. If we look at the problem from another point of view we find that in the same census there were 6,047,148 farm operators. Assuming that one-twentieth of this number, 302,360, should be trained for necessary replacement each year, we see how far a total enrollment of 162,806 falls short of supplying the necessary number.

There is another aspect of this prob-

lem perfectly well known to most of you but about which we have done all too little to date. I refer to the fact that the American high school ends altogether too soon to give adequate opportunity for boys and girls who do not wish to go to college to choose and prepare for a vocation. Moreover, with high schools broken up into small units from one end of the country to the other, there are wholly inadequate facilities for vocational training in all but a few centers of population.

As I see it, there can be but one certain answer for the public schools to give to this problem. There must be an extension of the secondary school period of training for at least two years and a concentration of facilities in larger school units which will make it both feasible and fashionable for young men and young women who do not wish collegiate training to prepare themselves in a wide range of vocations suited to their interests and the needs of the communities in which they live. Such an addition to the American school system cannot be merely a junior college doing two years of advanced work identical with that of the first two years of college. It must be technical enough in character so that any young man or woman may have the opportunity of learning one of the many new vocations which a changing economic life is constantly producing.

I am convinced, however, that this form of training cannot or should not exist as an institution apart. I mean that employers must cooperate with school administrators in telling them what trained young men and women for the pursuit of a given vocation need to know in order that courses of study may be readjusted accordingly. There must be opportunity for these young people to work at actual jobs in industry and elsewhere on a part-time basis which will give them the satisfaction of beginning

to earn something while at the same time they learn something of the technical and human relations requirements of a job. So far as possible this practical experience may very well be out of the competitive world but should be none the less real.

If, however, we assume that the specialized training of the American high school and its upward extension for the benefit of youth and young adults should be wholly along the lines of past vocational efforts we may make a serious mistake. Dr. Walter V. Bingham in a recent monograph points out the fact that while the number of men engaged in minimal ability or lower level occupations increased from 1920 to 1930 by 11.5 per cent the number in the higher level occupations increased by 17.3 per cent. Obviously the higher level occupations presuppose or should presuppose technical training.

"Most striking of all," Dr. Bingham declares, "are the changes in the professional and personal service functions. Here the number in the professions proper increased 48 per cent, and in the semi-professional group—trained nurses, social workers, laboratory assistants, librarians, actors, etc.—51.7 per cent."

David C. Coyle in his little book entitled "The Irrepressible Conflict—Business vs. Finance" has put the whole matter succinctly: "It is in the field of services, of work that does not require any significant amount of mechanical power and raw material, that the only potentially unlimited field of human labor exists. A very large expansion of this field is the only practical solution of the problem of employment for the men displaced by

machines. The improvement of living conditions, of health, knowledge, and art, the beautification of city and country, modern methods of treating criminals and defectives, the elimination of agricultural pests, the provision of recreation facilities and a host of other 'cultural' or quasi-cultural improvements, with all the various grades of labor and management required, must be the field of occupation in the future for most of our population."

From this it seems clear that to the vocations of industry, business and agriculture must be added types of training which prepare young people for places of responsibility in a great variety of social service occupations. It will be the business of the public school system in the future to identify these trends in occupations and to make such changes in facilities and curricula as are necessary to enable young men and women to enter them.

My friends, I realize that we cannot solve our youth problem in a single day. Time is necessary for an adequate consideration of its many ramifications. But it must be remembered that there is something extremely critical in our present situation which calls for the earliest possible attention and action. What millions of young people can do for themselves and for society in the next generation is at stake. We who are moulders of public opinion through the processes of education have it within our power and as a part of our responsibility to help secure that widespread consideration of a social problem which is necessary to its ultimate solution. I trust that we may not fail in our duty and in our opportunity.

EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENTS AT THE COLLEGE LEVEL¹

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THREE of the most important questions which college faculties can ask themselves are: *First*, Are their prospective Freshmen prepared to enter college? *Second*, Are the students in their colleges making satisfactory progress? *Third*, How accurately can these first two questions be answered? The orthodox answer to these questions would be somewhat as follows: "Well, those admitted to college have offered fifteen units in English, math, foreign language etc. and the intelligence tests which they have taken show very few morons or near-morons. After they get into college the poor ones drop by the wayside and many of the survivors do very creditable work while others are not so good. We judge the quality of their work by the grades which they receive after completing a semester or term's work. Of course our division of subjects into terms or semesters is somewhat arbitrary and the grades of the teachers vary to a considerable extent, but in the long run things even up." Such an answer seems to me most evasive. In fact, if he tells the truth, the college administrator or teacher must acknowledge that he can not answer these questions at all adequately under the present system of entrance units, inaccurate grades and arbitrary division of fields of knowledge into semester and term hours. In this paper I shall briefly set forth some of the efforts which are being made to put educational measurements at the college level on a rational basis.

The fact is that most examinations are very faulty. It is not necessary, I believe, to defend this proposition. Every college faculty has at least one member who specializes in high grades and whose classes are thronged both with Phi Beta Kappa chasers and students specializing in athletics and other extra-curricular activities. On the other hand, every faculty has the hard-boiled individual who measures his success as a teacher by the number of students he fails. However, an A or an F looks just as big in the registrar's office whatever its origin or previous condition of servitude. Just how these professors arrive at their grades I don't know except by examining my own processes, which I refuse to divulge. It was with the hope of combating this subjectivity of grades that the new-type or objective test has come into rather wide use. Since about 1915 the intelligence test of an objective type has been used in many colleges as an aid to guidance and admission. The new-type test in various subjects of the curriculum followed the intelligence test and for the past dozen years or so has steadily increased in favor, if it has not always improved in quality. As Dean Johnston says: "Among the advantages claimed for the new type examination two are most generally recognized. First, the large number of items makes it possible to cover in one examination a wide range of information or a broad sampling of the content of a course. Second, the exactness of the answers makes it possible to score the examination objectively, and so to avoid the errors of subjective judgment. Those who have observed the

¹A paper published under the sponsorship of officials of the Commission on Higher Institutions.—THE EDITOR.

different values assigned to the same paper of the essay type by two or more competent teachers have almost invariably been attracted by this feature of objective tests."¹ It would seem that the College Entrance Examination Board in a subject so definite as algebra could devise tests (not objective) which would give fairly equal results from year to year. However, according to Ben Wood, the percentages of failure in algebra for the years 1916-21 were as follows: 61.8 per cent, 36.7 per cent, 25.3 per cent, 61.3 per cent, 26.1 per cent and 28.5 per cent.² Surely the thousands of students taking the college entrance examinations each year do not vary so much in training and ability as these figures indicate. The examinations were not equal, although they were supposed to be and were so used. Many teachers do not wish to use the new type test because they feel that it takes away from the student the opportunity to write English and organize his knowledge or lack of knowledge, as the case may be, I am somewhat fearful that such teachers often idealize the "run-of-the-mine" essay type examination. Wood rather caustically remarks, "It is a curious and inexplicable fact that even the most intelligent and otherwise cautious teachers attribute to English prose produced under ordinary examination conditions, powers which Roman senators used to attribute to astrologers, magicians, and oracles. From the confidence with which teachers ordinarily believe that an essay type examination reveals to them the mental powers, special achievement, literary powers, organizing ability, etc. of their students, one would easily conclude that such English prose constituted a medium

through which the examinee's very soul became as tangible and objective as an Euclidean proof. But this confidence, like so many current non-scientific beliefs, has no better basis than tradition."¹

It should be said however that there is danger of idealizing the new type test. Even the best objective test is far from being a perfect measuring instrument. Nevertheless, it seems to me almost impossible to get the subjectivity out of an essay type of test, while the objective test, if scientifically made, can become a more and more accurate instrument for measuring a student's educational achievement. Probably the most valid criticism of objective tests is that they often measure for factual material rather than for power to handle the facts and reason from and with them. Dean Hawkes of Columbia University, where the new-type test has been used in most of the departments for the past ten years, says: "One often hears the criticism of the new-type examination that it deals merely with factual material. No one who is familiar with the best forms of such examinations believes this to be true, but even if it were a just criticism, one is certainly justified in feeling that some method of finding out whether a student knows his facts is a valuable adjunct to our educational process. I admit that nowadays, as always in the past, there are certain temperaments who despise facts and regard them as beneath their serious consideration. They prefer to talk of things and to talk of things in a large way rather than to be held down to any factual basis as a point of departure for their discussions."² Some of the tests worked out by Lindquist and Anderson which have been used in the

¹J. B. Johnston, "The Proposed 1932 College Testing Program of the Cooperative Test Service," *Educational Record*, XII (1931), 344.

²Ben D. Wood, *Measurement in Higher Education*, p. 128. Yonkers, New York: World Book Company, 1923.

¹*Ibid.*, loc. cit.

²Herbert E. Hawkes, "The Work of the Committee on Personnel of the American Council on Education," *Bulletin of Association of American Colleges*, XVIII (1932), 55.

Iowa Every-Pupil Test in World History and by the Cooperative Test Service of the American Council on Education certainly test for more than mere factual memory of dates, personages or phrases in the text book. For example, as shown below, the student is given five historical personages and three statements about three of these individuals worded to avoid text book language. The student's task is to match each statement with the proper person.

- | | |
|--------------------|---|
| 1. Henry VIII | His revolt against the church probably would have been unsuccessful had the Emperor not been busily engaged in foreign warfare. (4) |
| 2. John Huss | He was instrumental in reclaiming a large part of Germany for Catholicism. (3) |
| 3. Ignatius Loyola | |
| 4. Martin Luther | His conflict with the church netted him great economic advances. (1) |
| 5. St. Dominic | |

If anyone thinks that the making of a worthwhile objective test is the favorite indoor sport of professors of Education who have nothing better to do, let him read Lindquist's articles cited below.¹ If he can answer some of these tests without reasoning, he must indeed be a superman.

In my opinion it is imperative that the unit system of admission to colleges be scrapped and that progress in college be measured by growth in achievement in the various fields of knowledge which are deemed worthy of a place in the curriculum. If this be done (and I believe I see the handwriting on the wall), then objective tests of achievement give us a comparable, usable system of measurement which can be gained in no other way. Of course the essay type of examination can and will be used by instructors in their teaching, but when it comes to the final reckoning day, standardized achievement tests made by a combination of subject matter specialists and

experts in the technique of test construction should be the criteria of the mastery of subject matter. No longer will we say that John Smith has had Economics 1, Economics 2a and Economics 16b, but will certify that he has reached a certain stage in the knowledge of economics as measured by an impersonal test.

The most significant step in educational measurements for colleges in many years is the Cooperative Test Service and

the College Sophomore Testing Program under the auspices of the American Council on Education. The purpose of the Cooperative Test Service is to construct ten or more comparable forms of examinations in the fundamental subject matters of junior college and senior high school levels and to make them available to the colleges and schools, one form each year at the lowest possible cost. The General Education Board has granted a subvention of \$500,000 extending over ten years for this purpose and Professor Ben D. Wood of Columbia University has been appointed as Director of Test Service. This movement is an outgrowth from the subcommittee on Achievement Tests of the Central Committee on Personnel Procedure set up by the National Research Council in 1923. The results from the statewide testing of both high school and college students in Pennsylvania conducted under the auspices of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching were so significant¹ that it

¹E. F. Lindquist, "The Form of the American History Examination of the Cooperative Test Service," *Educational Record*, XII (1931), 459-75; and E. F. Lindquist and H. R. Anderson, "Achievement Tests in the Social Studies," *Educational Record*, XIV (1933), 198-256.

¹Max McConn, "The Carnegie Foundation's Study of Secondary and Higher Education in Pennsylvania," *Bulletin of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, Vol. V, No. 2 (1930), 43-54.

seemed advisable to the Committee on Achievement Tests to inaugurate a co-operative testing program in as many colleges as would be willing to cooperate. It was therefore decided to give tests at the end of the sophomore year or junior college in May 1932, since that point in college is or should be the end of a chapter in the student's educational training. Since tests of high value for this purpose had already been constructed for the Pennsylvania Study, the Intelligence, General Culture, General Science and English Tests used in Pennsylvania were adopted. 101 colleges of liberal arts, 24 teachers colleges, 17 junior colleges, 2 agricultural colleges and 5 engineering colleges participated in this program and over 15,000 sophomores were tested by this battery of tests.¹ In May 1933 and 1934 this sophomore testing program was again carried on by means of tests made by the Cooperative Test Bureau. The following battery of tests was used:

Cooperative English Test, Series 1, 95 minutes
 Cooperative Literary Acquaintance Test, 45 minutes
 Cooperative General Culture Test, 180 minutes
 Cooperative General Science Test for College Classes, 60 minutes
 Cooperative General Mathematics Test for College Classes, 120 minutes
 Cooperative French, German, Spanish, or Latin Test, 90 minutes

In 1934 the following additional tests were used:

Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test, 90 minutes
 Cooperative Physics Test, 225 minutes
 Cooperative Chemistry Tests, 255 minutes
 Cooperative Zoology Tests, 255 minutes
 Cooperative Botany Tests, 255 minutes
 Cooperative Geology Tests, 180 minutes

In the case of the Chemistry, Zoology, and Botany Tests there were also forms which covered an elementary

knowledge of Information, Terminology and Application of Principles, two hours. Both the Zoology and Botany Tests have tests on Laboratory Techniques.

The results from the giving of these tests are discussed each year in the *Educational Record*, where percentiles for each of the tests are given and comparisons between colleges, age groups, men and women students etc. are made. These data should be very valuable to cooperating colleges.¹ A new battery of tests will be produced every year and the whole movement seems to be of great promise both for aid in the study and guidance of individual students and for valid, comparable data to be used in answering the questions with which I began this paper—are college students accomplishing anything worthwhile or are they simply keeping up with the educational “lockstep” or perhaps falling out of step? No individual college can hope to construct its own tests which will compare in validity and dependable norms with tests made cooperatively and given to thousands of students.

The Cooperative Test Service has also done excellent work in constructing tests in the various subject matter fields for use in colleges. Tests are now available in English (2 series), Literary Acquaintance, French, German, Spanish, Latin, Algebra, Plane Geometry, Solid Geometry, Trigonometry, General Mathematics, General Science, Biology, Physics, Chemistry, Zoology, Botany, Geology, Astronomy, American History, Modern European History, Ancient History, Medieval History, English History, Economics, Professional Education, General Culture, Contemporary Affairs and

¹J. B. Johnston and others, “The 1932 College Sophomore Testing Program,” *Educational Record*, XIII (1932), 290-343.

J. B. Johnston and others, “The 1933 College Sophomore Testing Program,” *Educational Record* XIV (1933), 522-71; and “The 1934 College Sophomore Testing Program” *Educational Record* XV (1934), 471-516.

Advanced Reading Tests in French, German and Spanish.¹ New tests are being issued each year. During 1934 the test on Contemporary Affairs was published and also several new tests in chemistry, botany and zoology have appeared. In January 1934 an experimental testing program in physics was inaugurated in which more than 300 colleges participated. It is hoped to carry on experimentation in other fields in this and succeeding years. These tests bear the names of well-known subject matter specialists as well as of experts in the testing field. As has been said, new forms will be issued each year and they will be sold at the lowest possible cost (at present the basic prices are 4, 5, 6 and 10 cents a copy depending on the number of pages with liberal discounts from the basic price if they are ordered in large numbers). Dean Max McConn in the *Educational Record* for October 1933 sets forth in a very convincing way the advantages and facilities of the Cooperative Test Service and the statewide testing programs in Minnesota, Iowa, Wisconsin and other states. Everyone interested in rational guidance and measurement of high school and college students should read and study this paper.² During the fiscal year ending May 1934 over 360,000 tests were distributed all over the country by the Cooperative Test Bureau. However as Dean Hawkes says, this wide distribution of tests represents only a minor part of the story. "The experience of the last two decades has shown that the way in which tests are used is vastly more significant than the number used. The Cooperative Test Service and the other related committees of the American Council have therefore from the beginning given greater empha-

sis to the philosophy and methodology of guidance and to the role of comparable tests in guidance, than to the mere giving of the tests. It is the inchoate and unsystematic way in which tests have been used during the past two decades that has obscured the real potentialities of comparable tests for constructive educational guidance purposes."¹ It seems to me therefore that, if colleges and universities make the correct use of this test service, a new day is dawning in the world of educational measurement and guidance in our colleges. "Some of the advantages of such a series of comparable examinations are that (a) individual growth in defined types of achievement can be measured year after year, thus making feasible types of educational guidance and of educational research which would be difficult or impossible with unrelated examinations or with standardized tests which exist in two or at the most three comparable forms; (b) each college that uses these tests may set up its own standards for admission, placement, promotion, certification and graduation and maintain these standards uniformly from year to year and at the same time maintain transfer and advanced standing relations with other institutions on the basis of comparable achievement test measurements; and (c) the results of subjective and other local examinations can be made closely comparable from year to year by using the results of the Cooperative Tests as a common denominator, thus taking advantage of the best features and minimizing the weaknesses of both types of examinations."²

Many college instructors, I believe, would be interested in a brief resume of objective tests in the various subject

¹*Cooperative Test Manual* New York: Cooperative Test Service (437 W. 35th St.).

²Max McConn, "Educational Guidance Is Now Possible," *Educational Record*, XIV (1933), 475-99.

¹H. E. Hawkes, "Report on the Cooperative Test Service," *Educational Record* XV (1934), 358-67.

²"The Cooperative Test Service," *Educational Record* XIV (1933), 115-19.

matter fields. I am including only tests which have been proven reasonably valid and reliable and which in most cases have norms based on a nation-wide use. The list is in no sense complete. Those wishing to consult a more complete bibliography of tests for college use should examine Kinder and Odell's study and the list given in the *Eighteenth Yearbook* of the National Society of College Teachers of Education.¹ Nor can I pretend to a critical knowledge of the tests except in the field of foreign languages. I shall not mention again the various tests of the Cooperative Test Service.

English. Two outstanding tests in this field are the Columbia Research Bureau English Test in two forms which consists of spelling, mechanics of English composition, vocabulary and literary knowledge, and the training test of the revised English Iowa Placement Examination in four forms. The Iowa Placement Examinations consist of an aptitude test and a training test. Both can be given but the training test is an examination of achievement while the aptitude test examines for probable success in a given subject.² The training test in this case consists of the recognition of correct and incorrect spelling, punctuation, grammar and sentence structure and requires forty minutes to complete. Mention might also be made of the Iowa Silent Reading Test which, as its name implies, is not a test on English but measures comprehension, organization, ability to locate information and the rate of read-

ing. All college students should be exposed to it.

Foreign Languages. The modern languages have a number of scientifically made and nationally standardized tests, many of which were constructed in the recent Modern Language Investigation.¹ Those constructed by Dr. Henmon and his associates for use in this investigation are called American Council Tests and are published by the World Book Company. In French there are three American Council Tests, each in two forms. The Alpha is the most comprehensive and is designed to measure completely a student's ability in French. The Beta is a more elementary test which measures for knowledge of vocabulary, comprehension and grammar. The third test of this series is called a Selection-Type Grammar test and is a substitute for the Alpha and Beta tests for teachers who prefer the multiple-choice type of a test to the recall type. The Columbia Research Bureau has a French test in two forms which examines for vocabulary, comprehension and grammar, while the revised French Training Test in the Iowa Placement Examinations series tests in four forms for French to English vocabulary, grammar, idioms and tenses of verbs, and comprehension for students who have had from one to eight semesters of French. The American Council Alpha German Test and the Columbia Research Bureau German Test are similar to the tests in French with the same names. The American Council on Education German Reading Scales test first, second and third year students' ability to read and understand German paragraphs of varying difficulty. In Spanish, the American Alpha and Beta Tests and the Columbia Research Bureau Test

¹J. S. Kinder and C. W. Odell, *Educational Tests for Use in Institutions of Higher Learning*, University of Illinois Bulletin, XXVIII (August 5, 1930), No. 49; and Clifford Woody and others, *Quantitative Measurements in Institutions of Learning*, Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Society of College Teachers of Education (1930), Chapter II.

²G. D. Stoddard *Iowa Placement Examinations*: Iowa City, State University of Iowa Studies in Education, Vol. III, No. 2 (August 15, 1925); and "Iowa Placement Examinations," *School and Society*, XXIV (1926), 212-16.

¹V. A. C. Henmon, *Achievement Tests in Modern Foreign Languages*: Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, Volume V, New York; The Macmillan Company, 1929.

have been made with the same care and can be used for the same purpose as those in French and German. There is also a Spanish Training Test in the Iowa Placement Examinations similar to the one in French.

In Latin there are no tests made primarily for college students although several of the tests mentioned below can measure, in certain abilities, students who have had four years of Latin. The New York Latin Achievement Test published by the World Book Company is the only test which measures all-around achievement in Latin and that for the first year alone. The Ullman-Kirby Test measures comprehension of Latin. The White Latin Test is designed to measure the growth in the students' knowledge in translation and vocabulary while the Harvard Latin Tests examine achievement in vocabulary, syntax and forms. There are several tests measuring one phase of Latin achievement such as the Godsey Latin Composition Test, the Hutchinson Latin Grammar Scales and the Tyler-Pressey Test in Latin Verb Forms.¹ Several of these tests were constructed for use during the Classical Investigation. There is need in Latin for a comprehensive achievement test with norms established for students of college grade. In an effort to measure functional knowledge of Latin, Catherine M. Haage has recently devised a series of tests on vocabulary, forms, speech feeling and comprehension.² More tests of this nature should be made.

Mathematics. In this field the Columbia Research Bureau has a test in Algebra which contains both theory and

problems. The American Council has issued tests in Solid Geometry and Trigonometry which cover fundamentals and problem solving. The Iowa Placement Examinations include a training test in mathematics which measures fundamentals in arithmetic, algebra and geometry. Mention should also be made of Thurstone's Algebra and Geometry tests which are a part of his Vocational Guidance Test but can be purchased separately.

Natural Sciences. In the field of physics the Columbia Research Bureau has a test with 144 true-false statements on mechanics, heat, light, sound, electricity and miscellaneous elements. Professor Lapp of the University of Iowa has designed a test to measure the first year of college physics while the physics test of the Thurstone Vocational Guidance Tests is designed to measure students entering engineering courses. The Iowa Placement Examinations include a training test in physics which covers information, principles, laws, history and problems.

In chemistry the Columbia Research Bureau Chemistry Test deals with descriptive information, formulae and equations, and problems. The norms are based on 8000 cases. George Washington University has issued two tests for college students, one for a first year chemistry course in college and the other for a course in organic chemistry. The norms are based on several thousand students. The training test in chemistry of the Iowa Placement Examinations tests for knowledge of chemical facts and the ability to solve equations and problems.

In biology and geology there are no tests for college students, so far as I know, except those in the Cooperative Test Service mentioned earlier.

Social Sciences. The field of the social sciences has been the battlefield for ambitious makers of objective tests. Many

¹Mark E. Hutchinson, "Objective Measurements in Latin—Their Value and Purpose," *The Classical Journal*, XXVI (1931), 349-60.

²These objective tests on a functional knowledge of Latin vocabulary, forms, speech feeling and comprehension are obtainable from the author Miss Catherine M. Haage, St. Mary-of-the-Woods College, St. Mary-of-the-Woods, Indiana.

teachers of the social sciences feel that a test of the objective type measures merely for factual material, but the work done by Lindquist of Iowa and others seems to warrant the statement that objective tests in the social sciences can and are being devised which call for reasoning power as well as knowledge of the facts. College teachers of the social sciences should by all means obtain the tests made by Lindquist and Anderson as they appear each year in the Cooperative Test Service.

The American Council has issued a test on Civics and Government whose questions cover both facts and relationships, one in Economics covering both fact material and reasoning, and one in European History which stresses the last five centuries of the history of Europe. The Columbia Research Bureau has a test on American History which tests the ability to make judgments and draw inferences on various aspects of American History.

Fine Arts. Some effort has been made to measure appreciation and achievement in this field. Mention might be made of the Meier-Seashore Art Judgment Test and Lewerenz' Tests in Fundamental Abilities of Visual Art. In music there are the Kwalwasser Test of Musical Information and Appreciation and the Kwalwasser-Ruch Test of Musical Accomplishment.

There are also tests in the fields of Home Economics, Physical Education, Psychology, Education, etc., but I am not familiar enough with them to cite any of particular significance. Nor is it within the province of this paper to discuss the various aptitude and intelligence tests or the comprehensive examination.

The purpose of this paper has been to arouse in college teachers an awareness of the fact that the orthodox system of judging student accomplishment needs revamping. As a teacher of Latin, I look forward to the day when it will not be a

question of how many units a student has had in the secondary school but rather of how much Latin he knows as shown by his score on an achievement test. As Dean Holmes says (and his remarks apply to all subjects): "The trouble with requirements in language, both for admission under the cover of a point system and for graduation from college, seems to me to lie in the fact that such requirements tend toward a mere perfunctory acquaintance with a language and not a useful command of it."¹ I maintain that all entrance into college and all progress in college should be determined by the ability of the student to meet certain tangible, measurable and comparable standards as set up by a nation-wide system of achievement tests in the subjects which educational opinion thinks worthy of a place in a liberal education. Our business in college education is not to juggle units, points and credits but to develop in our students real acquaintance with certain fields of knowledge. Secondary schools and colleges must work together to perform this miracle. When a boy graduates from college, both the college authorities and the student himself should know that the graduate, so far as his ability and industry warrants, has gained a reasonable command of certain fundamental fields of knowledge, many of which were begun in the high school. The Cooperative Test Service and the Sophomore Testing Program are pointing the way to a rational effort to at least find out where we stand in college achievement. I hope that college faculties will unanimously support this movement for a national system of educational measurement in the colleges, or is it too much to be hoped that a college faculty can agree on anything, even

¹H. W. Holmes, "The Colleges Undermine Themselves: An Indictment of the Admission System," *Educational Record*, XIV (1933), 110-11.

on something so fundamental as the accurate measurement of what their students are learning or are supposed to be learning?

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QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF CURRICULUM MATERIALS FOUND IN 300 COURSES OF STUDY¹

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Introduction.—Three years ago, the appointment of a subcommittee under the "Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula" was authorized, and effected by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, with Superintendent G. W. Willett of Lyons Township High School, LaGrange, Illinois, as Chairman. In the year 1931-32, the first report of this subcommittee was made by him concerning those schools which had indicated that they had launched curriculum revisions of one kind or another. In the year 1932-33, a second report was made on "An Analytical Study of One Hundred Courses of Study of High Schools Belonging to the North Central Association," by J. A. Clement. The present report presumes to present a *qualitative analysis* of the total curriculum materials that so far have been received by the committee, including the year 1933-34. The avowed purpose during the past three years has been to make a study of that curriculum content and its organization which has been included in the materials which have been made available to the subcommittee for examination.²

Several difficulties, as was true in the previous years of study, have again been encountered, during the current year, in an effort to assemble courses of study now in vogue in the high schools of the North Central Association area. In some

instances, for example, no revised curriculum materials at all were found to be available. In other instances, curriculum revision apparently has been decidedly retarded because of present financial handicaps. Furthermore, in a considerable number of other instances, either completed duplicate materials were not available in sufficient quantities for dissemination, or else revisions now in progress were as yet only partially completed and not sufficiently developed to warrant their release. While a considerable body of material has been collected, it is felt that there is yet a great fund of curriculum materials now in use in the schools of the North Central territory which is not herein represented. So this report does not pretend to represent a complete inventory. Nevertheless, it is felt that certain tendencies and practices are reflected in this sampling of curriculum materials now made available to the subcommittee.

Nature of the items to be considered.
—No attempt is made to make a quantitative or statistical summary of the findings resulting from an examination of the curriculum materials received. Partly because the inventory of the schools is so far from being complete, partly for other reasons, it was thought that a qualitative rather than a quantitative study could be made to be more profitable. The chief features to be considered in this discussion are as follows: *first*, the geographical "scatter" of the high schools represented, *second*, the "form" of published materials and the "nature" of captions used as labels; *third*, an enu-

¹A paper read before the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula in April, 1934.—THE EDITOR.

²The subcommittee wishes to thank all persons who have cooperated by sending to them published curriculum materials.

meration and characterization of "aims" or "objectives" listed in the publications; *fourth*, characterization of the "organization" and "content" of subject matter; *fifth*, "other elements" incorporated than aims and content, such as, for example, methods and so forth; *sixth*, announced policies, guiding principles, or "underlying philosophy" accompanying published materials; *seventh*, "generalizations" based on an examination and analysis of the assembled courses of study as a whole.¹

1. *The geographical range and scope of years included.*—Sixteen different states, fifty different schools systems, and a total of about 300 different courses of study were included in the scope of this analysis. The materials examined covered the scholastic years 1931-32 to 1933-34, inclusive. The majority of the courses of study represent high schools within city systems, although nine state courses of study are included. On the whole, the "scatter" of the schools is probably wide enough to be fairly representative of practices with reference to the scholastic years included, recognizing again, however, that, no doubt, some of the best materials were not made available to the subcommittee.

The following is a representative list of schools whose materials were used in this study:

Cleveland, Ohio; Champaign, Ill.; Chicago, Ill.; Central City, Neb.; Cicero, Ill.; Council Bluffs, Iowa; Cleveland Heights, Ohio; Denver, Colo.; Des Moines, Iowa; Duluth, Minn.; Danville, Ill.; Dearborn, Mich.; Detroit, Mich.; East St. Louis, Ill.; East Chicago, Ind.; Fenger Evening High School, Chicago; Fort Smith, Ark.; Francis W. Parker School, Chicago; Harvey, Ill.; Hamtramck, Mich.; Highland Park (Deerfield-Shields, Ill.; Kalamazoo, Mich.; Kansas City, Mo.; Lakewood, Ohio; LaGrange, Ill.; Paxton, Ill.; Phoenix, Ariz.; Peoria, Ill.; Rockford, Ill.; Rock Island, Ill.;

St. Louis, Missouri; Springfield, Ill.; Tulsa, Okla.; Topeka, Kan.; Wheaton, Ill.; Winnetka, Ill.

2. *General characterization of the form, and of the labelings or captions given to the published materials.*—It must be kept in mind that, on the whole, the materials examined do not represent the catalog, omnibus form of statement of the complete program of studies intact, but rather separate "courses of study" under the respective school subjects. These are published chiefly either in (a) typed, mimeographed, or multigraphed forms; or else (b) printed. As probably would have been anticipated, the materials received were predominantly in mimeographed, not printed, form, approximately ninety per cent of the materials being so published. From a limited number of schools, courses of study were received representing three stages; the first an "uncovered" mimeographed copy, the second a "paper covered" copy, and the third a printed copy. Apparently this represents the usual procedure in these more progressive schools.

Very great variation existed with respect to the number of pages included in the different courses of study. In the case of Art courses of study, for example, the range of pages is from 2 to 262, in biology from 29 to 85, in chemistry from 44 to 90, in commerce from 1 to 111, in English from 1 to 311, in foreign languages from 1 to 79, in health education from 1 to 222, in history from 2 to 352, in home economics from 4 to 117, in mathematics from 1 to 246, in music from 5 to 75, in physical education from 43 to 289, in physics from 46 to 88, in science from 1 to 160, and in social studies from 27 to 533. Commercial work was represented by 40 courses of study; 33 in English; 29 in foreign languages; 24 in health education; 44 in history, and social studies; 21 in mathematics; and 30 in science.

¹The phrase "published curriculum materials" is herein used in the broad sense to include type-written, mimeographed, multigraphed, and printed materials.

The labelings of the published materials were most often designated either in terms of the phrase "course of study" or else "course of study in English, history," and so forth. Other appellations used were, for example, "survey of courses of study"; "tentative course of study in elementary accounting"; "departmental manual"; "high school curriculum"; "syllabi of high school subjects"; "chemistry (or other subjects) for the junior and senior high school."

3. *Manner of statement, and characterization of the aims or objectives accompanying the courses of study.*—Several tendencies appeared in case of the listing of the aims or objectives which accompanied the outlines of the content of the courses of study. In the first place, aims were formulated with reference either to secondary education as a whole, or the local high school as such, or both; in the second place, with reference to the "subject group" as a whole or else the "subject," or both; in the third place, sometimes with reference to the "teaching units" or "topical" or other divisions of subject matter. In a limited number of schools all of the above were used. And, in some schools, aims were not listed in terms of any of the above elements at all. The above classification of aims was tabulated for each of the subject groups.

The following represent samplings of aims stated with reference to "secondary education as a whole": "To develop an ability to read intelligently for enjoyment of leisure time" (English); "to develop moral and ethical standards and ideals" (English); "to motivate students' use of leisure time in the reading of choice literature" (English); "to teach that good world citizenship need not conflict with American citizenship" (history); "to orient a pupil in his environment" (history); "to encourage some pupils to spend their spare time in

raising plants or animals" (biology); "to learn to use knowledge gained in the fruitful employment of one's leisure time" (biology); "to improve one's health efficiency" (general science); "to produce changes in individuals so that they may adapt themselves better to ever-changing conditions in society" (chemistry); "to realize the seven cardinal principles" (social studies); "to set up ideals of patriotism and civic conduct" (history); "to develop a spirit of helpful and active participation in community affairs" (junior high school social studies); "to contribute to some of the major objectives of education" (Latin); "to open up an additional field of interest that will lend zest to such leisure time activities as travel and reading of literature in modern foreign languages."

When aims for either "subject groups" or "subjects" are combined, these were much more frequently represented than in case of a statement of aims for secondary education as a whole. The tendency to state aims with reference to subject groups and subjects was greater than the tendency to state them either with reference to secondary education as a whole, or with reference to "teaching units" and other subject matter divisions. The aims under subject groups, and teaching units or other subject matter divisions are too numerous to record in full. Samples of those listed in the subject groups and subjects were as follows: "to teach respect for our national heritage" (English); "to discover the range and level of a pupil's reading interests" (English); "to develop skill in writing well-organized compositions" (English); "to acquire a rich and varied experience through reading" (English); "to develop an appreciation of numbers and number relationships" (mathematics); "to develop ability to visualize solid figures" (mathematics); "to acquire the fundamental concepts and meanings basic to

demonstrative geometry" (mathematics); "to develop an intelligent faith in democratic basic human institutions" (social studies); "to show that present day conditions are the result of cumulative experiences of mankind" (social studies); "to appreciate the development and continuity of the history of the world" (history); "to show the underlying principles common to all life, both plant and animal" (biology); "to learn how the different sciences are interrelated" (physical sciences); "to cultivate an appreciation of the significance of business in modern society" (commerce); "to utilize some of the findings of science which apply to the pupils' experience" (science).

In case of the "teaching units" and other types of subject matter divisions, aims were more often omitted than given. Some examples, however, are as follows: "to learn how to use the protractor and the compass" (mathematics); "to understand Greek civilization at its height" (history); "to understand the influence of physical environment on the history of early man" (history); "to study remedies for family responsibility" (sociology).

Some of the aims lend themselves rather clearly to general characterization under certain categories such as, for example, "disciplinary," "informational or knowledge," "practical," "cultural," and a combination or composite of two or more of the above.

The so-called "*mental discipline*" aim still appears with rather large frequency, and is scattered throughout the different subjects groups, as for example: "to develop ability of students to think" (English); "to develop ability to reason" (mathematics); "to develop reasoning ability, and habits of careful, accurate thinking" (mathematics); "to acquire zeal for accuracy, zest for work, and joy in achievement" (mathematics); "to

discipline the memory, imagination, and judgment" (history); "to give power in the systematizing of facts" (history); "to develop will-training" (French); "to establish effective modes of mental procedure in the study process" (Latin); "to develop the power of careful observation, comparison, judgment, and reasoning" (Latin); "to train and discipline the pupil" (physics); "to develop accuracy of observation and reasonable conclusions" (biology); "to develop the thinking and reasoning faculties of the students" (bookkeeping); "the ability to arrive at a correct conclusion" (commercial law); "to inculcate habits of neatness, accuracy, observation, honesty, and concentration" (chemistry); "to develop clear reasoning and training in independence of thought" (algebra); "to strengthen habits of perseverance, concentration, neatness, and accuracy" (shorthand and typewriting).

Examples of "*knowledge of informational*" aims are found in the following: "To become acquainted with some of the best current literature" (English); "to acquire literary facts" (English); "to know the meanings of important words and phrases and principles" (mathematics); "to understand the language of the formula and the equation" (mathematics); "to understand and appreciate the fundamental principles of the Constitution of the United States" (history); "to increase the ability to learn foreign languages" (Spanish); "to develop language concepts necessary to the mastery of fundamentals" (Latin); "to develop an appreciation of masterpieces in literature" (Latin); "to give a knowledge of the basic principles that underlie the successful operation of government" (history); "to give the elemental principles of grammar" (French); "to give a knowledge of the symptoms, preventives, and cures of most of the common diseases" (physiology); "to discover how food is obtained"

(biology); "to interpret the natural phenomena of pupils' environment" (biology); "to ascertain the knowledge of government and its purposes" (commercial law); "to learn the subject" (physical science).

Certain additional aims given represent a composite of elements. No examples of these will be given. But a limited list of those which may be regarded as primarily "*practical*" in nature are submitted, as for example: "To enable students to speak effectively in public" (English); "to emphasize the kinds of writing which pupils will do upon leaving school" (English); "to enable pupils to speak grammatically correct" (English); "to present business fundamentals which all should know" (business arithmetic); "to develop the ability to fit oneself into an organized society" (social studies); "to arouse a desire for active participation in the solution of present day problems" (social studies); "to develop the ability to communicate in simple speech and writing" (French); "to apply to everyday life principles in the field of science" (physical science).

Some examples of miscellaneous aims which are difficult to classify as well as to justify, perhaps, are as follows: "to eliminate the students who would otherwise overcrowd senior journalism classes with useless materials"; "to understand the meaning, sources, and purposes of history"; "to develop individual self control"; "to leave the pupil with a vision of whence he came, whither he is going, and what he ought to do while he is going."

4. *Characterization of the organization and nature of the subject matter content.*—Because of the more copious amount of materials made available in *history and other social studies*, in *English* and in the *natural sciences*, this section of the report will be primarily delimited to a characterization of the

nature of the organization and of the content of subject matter in these three fields. And this will be done in terms, *first*, of the form of arrangement of subject matter, that is teaching units, topical, or other divisions; second, with reference to the total number of teaching units or other divisions; *third*, with reference to a comparison of the nature of teaching units or other divisions of subject matter within respective "subject groups," and corresponding "subjects;" and, *fourth*, with reference to the relation of the above subject matter divisions to the textbooks used as such.

At the outset, it may be remarked, that one noticeable practice was found in the teaching of history and other social studies, in English, in natural sciences, as well as in other subject groups to list such divisions, as for example, "introduction," "the prologue," "preliminary statements," "supplementary readings," "reviews and drills," and so forth, as teaching units or topical divisions. It is debatable of course whether such divisions conform satisfactorily to the "technical" meanings usually given to the nature of "teaching units" and "topical arrangements."

(1) *Nature of the organization, and of the content of history and other social studies.*—In the case of history and other social studies, three tendencies were clearly manifest in the nature of the organization of subject matter. In the first place, materials of instruction were organized according to "teaching units"; in the second place, according to "topical divisions"; in the third place, certain other divisions neither designated as teaching units or topics. In the materials examined, the "teaching unit" divisions of subject matter predominated.

(2) Much variation occurs with reference to the range in the number of so-called "master" units or topics, or other divisions of subject matter included in

the respective four year high schools. For example, in American history, the range in number of teaching units was from seven to twelve; in World history, from five to twelve; in European history, from seven to ten; in civics, from nine to sixteen; in economics, from seven to thirteen; in sociology from four to five. In case of the social studies of the junior high school, the range in number of units varied from eight to twelve per semester.

A comparison of the nature of the labeled teaching units, or other subject matter divisions brings out certain tendencies in practice. It is not possible to present the full array of such divisions, so that a sample list of examples is herein presented. One city for instance outlines *teaching units* in American history as follows: (I) "Europe opens the new continent," (II) America moves westward," (III) the realization of national government (IV) "the challenge of a changing social order," (V) from isolation to world power. In the above instance, a basic text is used. Another city outlines units as follows, for American history: (I) Period of discovery and exploration, 1450-1750, (II) "Colonization of America," (III) "the American Revolution" 1775-83, (IV) "the government in operation," (V) "the westward movement," (VI) "national expansion." A third city offers the following topics: (I) "Introductory factors affecting American history," (II) discovery and exploration, 1492-1607, (III) "Colonization and struggle for supremacy," (IV) the American Revolution," (V) "development of nationalism and democracy 1789-1829," (VI) "sectional interests and expansion, 1829-60," (VII) "Civil War and reconstruction, 1860-76," (VIII) "industrial, social, and political progress 1876-96," (IX) "the United States a world power, 1897-1916," (X) "the World War and modern times."

The tendency to use, at will, similar subject matter divisions either as "teaching units" or as "topical divisions," that is, interchangeably, appears, for example, in the following subject matter divisions. One school system lists: "Europe opens the new country" as a teaching unit; another school lists "the European background of America" as a topical division; a third school, lists "the old world to the new" as neither a "teaching unit" or "topical" division, or "the European expansion to the new world." The same tendency may be illustrated in case of another division of subject matter, as for example, "the colonizing of America"; "discovery and exploration, 1492-1607;" "period of exploration and discovery;" "the colonization of the American continent;" "colonial America to 1763;" "America 1657-1763." A similar tendency is shown in another unit, such, for example, as "the nationalization period." These illustrations may indicate two things: first, it may be possible that the difference between real "topics" and "teaching units" may, after all, not be so very great; second, that there appears to be some unanimity of opinion as to points of subject matter emphasis in the teaching of American history.

Another tendency which has been emphasized in theory for some time appears in the nature of the subject matter divisions stressed. For example, *social*, *economic*, and *industrial* elements are found represented in the different school systems in the following: "the challenge of a changing social order," "America becomes an industrial nation," "the second industrial revolution," "the industrial development," "industrial America," "industrial, social, and political progress, 1876-96," "economic movements, 1890-1931," "the rise of the United States in world politics and commerce."

In the instance of World history, the teaching units, topical divisions, out of

ten school systems considered, seven emphasized as their initial aspects "primitive and oriental contributions to life." Peculiarly, however, the subject matter divisions as a whole, in the World history content examined, stressed the following traditional order, Grecian, Roman, Middle Ages, Reformation and Renaissance periods, and in this respect was similar to the limited amount of materials received and examined in the Ancient history courses. On the other hand, certain divisions of subject matter, as was found to be true in case of the American history, were non-traditional in nature, as for example, the following: "the emergence of the inquiring mind"; "the political, cultural, and economic conditions growing out of the Renaissance and the Reformation"; "everyday life of the earlier peoples of the world"; "commerce, industry, communication, and transportation"; "the life and institutions of the Middle Ages"; "scientific and social reform"; "the development of the industrial revolution out of scientific and social reform"; "great religious impulses of the world"; "the development of the fine arts"; "peace and its problems"; "the new internationalism."

In the case of the civics offerings, two outstanding tendencies appeared. One of these had to do with the more *formal* and traditional aspects, and the other with the more functional, and with community activities. The former tendency, namely the formal, was represented, for example, in two schools as follows: "the origin and development of government," "political parties"; "the legislative phase of government"; "the executive phase of government"; "the judicial phase of government"; "the United States Constitution." On the other hand, the *functional* aspect was illustrated by the following: "The social necessities for efficient democratic government," "the benefits and duties of citizenship in a

democracy," "our organized group life," "how our community welfare can be protected"; "how our government carries out its organization," "our need for government," "conserving our natural resources," "protecting workers in industry," "the function of social institutions," "problems of child welfare," "the public school system," "learning to live together," "the problems of revenue and finance," "personal liberty, law and crime," "the increase in governmental activities, national, state, and local."

In the field of economics, the materials which were examined showed that the major emphasis was placed on "production," "exchange," "consumption," and "distribution." In some instances, emphasis was placed on theory, i.e., on definitions, and principles versus the practical problems of everyday life. In the field of sociology several very excellent outlines were received. The following is a representative list of subject matter divisions which were listed: "man and his environment," "human nature," "our social heritage," "our social institutions," "some social problems" in an elementary course. And in an advanced course: "problems of social adjustment," "problems of economic adjustment," "problems of political adjustment," "problems of race and nationalism."

Twenty different courses of study in social science for the junior high school were examined. And as no doubt would be expected were, on the whole, less formalistic in nature than the work in history and other social studies on the senior high school level. Some of these subject matter courses in the seventh and eighth grades were based on undifferentiated history, civics, and geography, some primarily on history, some primarily on civics, some primarily on vocations. Without any effort to catalog these in order of the above aspects, illustrations found were as follows: "membership in

the junior high school," "individual responsibility in the junior high school," "the junior high school pupil, his school and community," "opportunities in some occupations," "the American industrial revolution," "democracy in the early colonies," "how the United States acquired its present area," "the commercial development of the United States," "how the old world found the new," "growth of nationalism and democracy," "the setting of our country's story," "some present-day problems of the United States," "some geographical conditions influencing human life."

Subject matter divisions selected at random from the total list of courses indicate the emphasis placed on *social, economic, industrial, and civic aspects*. The following are verbatim statements taken from the different courses of study examined with no attempt to classify them: "the city water system," "making and reading graphs," "winning a living from the soil," "development of transportation and communication," "the clothing industry," "two giant forces, capital and labor," "the adjustment of four different neighborhoods," "the industrial development of the United States from 1850 to 1929," "problems of the newly established government," "big business attempts to control government," "the interdependence of modern industrial nations," "changing agricultural conditions," "the industrial history of America," "how man learned to control natural forces," "the important economic phases of our social life," "ideals as an important phase of social life," "making a living," "recreation and public health," "development of respect for ownership," "development of ideals of group loyalty," "world trade and consumption," "making, interpreting, and executing the laws," "securing revenue for the government," "selecting government officials," "how our nation can cooperate with other

nations," "home and community problems," "problems which we faced after the World War," "working together for our national welfare."

In the majority of instances examined, the findings were similar to those found in the inventory made in the National Survey on Secondary Education, namely, that *textbooks* as such furnished the source of the great body of subject matter used in the courses of study. And while this was predominantly true in those courses where the materials were arranged on the non-teaching unit basis, it was also largely true even in many instances in which the subject matter was organized on the "teaching unit" basis.

5. *Other elements than aims and content incorporated*.—Many persons have felt that whenever courses of study are outlined and published, aims and content of subject matter should be accompanied by additional elements. In case of the present materials examined, it was found that suggestions relative to *teaching techniques or procedures* were more frequently found than any other elements. Next were the helps for pupils in their study, provision for individual differences of pupils being just about as frequent. New tests and drills corresponding to the newly organized materials occurred in still fewer instances.

6. *Announced policies, principles, points of view or philosophy accompanying curriculum materials*.—An attempt was made to discover how far, if at all, underlying policies, principles, points of view, or philosophies were explicitly stated along with the published curriculum materials. The above terms, policies, principles and so forth have been used in a broad sense as interchangeable in meaning. In some instances, it was found that definite captions or headings had been used to designate these. But in most instances these were interwoven, miscellaneous, throughout the body of the

discussion. Of course it is possible that some schools have published these apart from the materials that were put into the hands of the sub-committee. A limited number of *examples*, sought out, are herein given *in case of* the subject groups of *English*, *history*, and other *social studies*, and *natural science*.

Certain general comments frequently did accompany the courses of study as such, which pertained to the problem of curriculum revision as a whole. For instance, one school reports that the "views of outstanding authorities, principles of modern psychology, and reports of research" were studied before attempting to reformulate courses of study; another, that "the program of curriculum revision is continuous," another, that "courses of study were prepared by curriculum experts together with committees of supervisors, and teachers," or, that "personal conferences were held with curriculum experts."

Examples in case of English.—The largest number of examples relative to announced policies and principles herein submitted is taken from the field of English. The order in which these are presented has no special significance. The following represent samplings: (1) "English is a foundation for the whole high school course," (2) "we are rapidly approaching a new era in the teaching of English in our high schools," (3) "the teaching of English may be made to contribute to the major aims of secondary education," (4) "common honesty impels us to avoid, as far as possible, a statement of vague aims which we know are as yet unattainable in the majority of high schools," (5) "the teaching of English must be changed so that it will function vitally in the life of the pupil," (6) "any thorough reorganization will shift the emphasis from mere attention to subject matter to emphasis on the pupil and his needs," (7) "the aim of this course of

study in English is to make the teaching of English a unit from the first grade throughout the senior high school," (8) "the program of the senior high school has been planned in direct correlation with the work of the junior high school," (9) "one explanation of our poor showing in the teaching of English is that we are trying to teach too many things simultaneously," (10) "the work of the English department should be correlated with all of the other departments," (11) "provision should be made for individual differences as to interests, capacities, and needs, including slow, medium, and rapidly moving pupils," (12) "some creative writing should be encouraged among those students who are interested and capable," (13) voluntary outside readings should be encouraged in order to supplement intensive study of a limited number of writings," (14) "the grammar that is taught below the tenth grade should be largely the grammar that functions, and the study of functional grammar should continue throughout the high school course, but grammar as a technical, logical subject should have some attention above the second year," (15) "the teacher should not feel that, since each phase of English receives separate attention in the course of study, she must teach each division separately," (16) "the closer the correlation and interweaving of the phases of English, and of English with other subjects, the better the pupil achievement will be."

Upon analyzing the above statements, one finds that certain *fundamental issues* are set forth, such as, for example, How far shall English be made the foundation of, and correlated with, all of the other departments? How far should the general and specific aims of secondary education influence the nature of the subject matter taught? What relative emphasis should be given to pupils' differing interests, needs and capacities?

How far is it possible to correlate the English taught in the elementary, junior, and senior high school? What relative emphasis shall be placed upon the functional aspects of grammar and other phases of English in comparison with the formal? It seems justifiable to suggest that it would be of some profit if such issues were explicitly set forth rather than in the now somewhat random manner in which they are found in the majority of the courses in English as well as in other courses of study.

Examples in case of History and other social studies.—In history and other social studies the following were found interspersed throughout the course of study as a whole, some of them occurring near the beginning, some of them in the middle, and some at the end: (1) "We are seeking to establish a basic substructure of aims and principles which may aid in unifying the social studies—so that we may be consciously working toward certain common purposes, regardless of the subject division—with which we are dealing," (2) "our plan is to organize the social studies from the kindergarten throughout grade twelve around three types of general principles," (3) "the committee believes that the subjects contributing to social, moral, and civic life should receive major emphasis in the revision of the curriculum," (4) the primary purposes of this course are to acquaint the student with the social, political, economic, artistic, religious, and intellectual developments of the past," (5) "the outline of the history of civilization is offered, and it has been necessary to sacrifice those things which do not contribute directly to the growth of civilization," (6) "it is not only content but actual participation by pupils which is likely to achieve desired results," (7) "the ninth grade should be regarded as a finding and exploratory year," (8) "in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth years

some differentiation of content may well occur," (9) "our history courses in the high school are organized to trace continuous development of five or six big lines of human progress from ancient to present times, and this should be unfolded continuously throughout each year's work in the department," (10) "we would have all the work and every method of the school tested by the degree in which it enables every pupil daily to take from life his fullest measure of useful, happy experience and to give to life—his fullest measure of service."

Examples in case of Natural Sciences.—In the field of natural sciences, likewise, the following were collected from various courses of study: (1) The entire teaching staff, through building conferences, worked from February until June, evolving the general principles and philosophy of education underlying the program," (2) "general principles applicable to science were outlined," (3) "in the selection of material for the course, we have attempted to include only those things which lend themselves to our aims," (4) "we have attempted in part to develop chemistry based upon the interests of the students,—and the materials relative to industries—have also been given some emphasis," (5) "an effort has been made to have the course conform to the recommendations and spirit of the thirty-first year-book," (6) "the plan (in physiology) is to emphasize the positive rather than the negative side of the subject—enabling the pupil also to take a useful part in the community in preventing disease," (7) "the pupil should be brought into intelligent and sympathetic touch with his surroundings in order to understand such phenomena," (8) "in making our courses of study suggestions from science bulletins, courses of study, textbooks and from teachers were used," (9) "there is a growing conviction that too much time has been expended in the

past upon laboratory work. The present tendency is decidedly in the direction of an increase in the direction of demonstration work by the teacher," (10) "the teacher who performs demonstration experiments to the exclusion of pupils' experimentation is not teaching science. The pupil must take a definite part—in fact a major part—in experimentation," (11) "the day in which the subjects in the curriculum were so circumscribed that they were not related to other subjects of the curriculum or to experiences in the life of the pupil has passed. Demands of modern civilization teach us that we are to teach life as a unit, and each experience both in school and out should be in relation to the whole," (12) "this course of study in chemistry is offered not as a final but as a tentative plan," (13) "by participation of the entire teaching force—along with supervisors and subject matter specialists—it is our belief that a better curriculum is being formulated than could have been developed by single department heads or subject matter specialists alone," (14) "the purpose of laboratory work in chemistry is not to complete a certain number of experiments, but to develop a type of thinking that will be valuable in later life."

At this juncture attention is called to an instance of course of study formulation in science in the high school, which has been in progress during the current year. During weekly conferences, covering a period of five months, five teachers of science in the Champaign High School, and one teacher in the Urbana High

ers of science in the Champaign High School, and one in the Urbana High School, who met weekly with a curriculum counselor for a period of five months.¹ The following represents an epitomized outline of the efforts of this committee.

A. Some contributions which the teaching of science courses should make toward secondary education as a whole. (Consists of seven type-written pages).

1. Contributions to the physical welfare, and to the material and vocational life of pupils.

2. Contributions to social life and to the solution of corresponding problems.

3. Contributions to the leisure-time life of pupils, as well as to the stimulation of some pupils with a permanent intellectual curiosity and interest, and to the development of fruitful attitudes in them toward science as a whole.

B. The determination of the quality of the content of subject matter in the science courses as a whole, in the light of the agreed on possible aims and contributions. (Five pages).

1. Consideration of fundamental criteria for selection of subject matter.

2. Choosing subject matter in the light of desirable aims and contributions.

3. Consideration of a balanced emphasis between problems of so-called "pure" and "applied" science, or academic and practical aspects.

4. Consciousness of some concepts in science as a whole which should be regarded as common possessions of all high school pupils whether going to college or not.

C. Underlying considerations of policy in the actual organization and administration of the content of science courses as a whole in the high school. (Eight pages).

1. Horizontal and vertical correlation or articulation of the various divisional aspects of science offered in order to avoid unprofitable duplication; as well as the intelligent correlation with other departments in the high school.

2. Consideration of the feasibility or the non-feasibility of the organization of science subject matter without enslavement to the traditional subject-line divisions.

3. Consideration of the possibility of re-organizing the nature and arrangement of subject matter under subject-line divisions, in the light of the local system.

4. Consideration of the possibility of a modified combination plan of both the subject-line

A TENTATIVE OUTLINE OF SCIENCE COURSES FOR
CHAMPAIGN HIGH SCHOOL, CHAMPAIGN,
ILLINOIS, 1933-34

I. Statement of Underlying Policy, Principles, or Philosophy with Reference to Science Courses in the High School.—(About twenty pages). The guiding policy, principles or philosophy of the science courses for the high school, as well as the outline of the content, were formulated by a committee of five teach-

¹Miss Nellie Bates, Mrs. Grace Cook, Miss Alvena Bamberger, Mr. Charles Gooding, Mr. H. E. Rumble, and Miss Lola McClurg.

divisions and the non-subject-line divisions of subject matter.

5. Considerations with reference to grade placement of subject matter, including provisions of some kind for individual differences of pupils in capacity, interests and previous preparation.

II. *Detailed Outline of the Actual Organization and Administration of the Different Elements or Divisional Aspects, Covering Foundation or Introductory Science of the Ninth Grade or Below in the Junior High School, and of the Biological and Physical Science Phases Offered in the Tenth, Eleventh and Twelfth Grades.*—Through the functional, and non-subject-line division is the most desirable, in many instances at the present time, because of the present administrative set-up, it may be necessary to use some other plan. In any instance it seems desirable that the following represent a minimum number of elements to be considered: 1. Desirable aims for contributions; 2. Arrangement of subject matter in harmony with these; 3. Provision for appropriate pupils activities; 4. Teacher suggestions as to classroom techniques; 5. Well chosen textbooks, and supplementary materials. (Number of pages ——. Not yet completed).

School, have, together with the cooperation of a curriculum counselor in the University, attempted to organize a tentative outline of science courses in the high school. It was first agreed by the group that some consideration would be given to a statement of an underlying policy, body of principles, or philosophy with reference to the science courses to be offered in the high school. Such a statement has been put into typewritten form making a total of about twenty pages. In the second place, it was agreed that a detailed outline of the different offerings in science would be attempted, which task has been only partially completed during the current year. The teachers have felt that leeway should be given in respective school systems, dependent upon local conditions and administrative set-ups, with reference to the organization of subject matter according to traditional subject-line divisions, or according to functional and non-subject-line divi-

sions. An epitomized tentative outline of the results of the efforts of this group of science teachers up-to-date is herein submitted as an illustration of what now appears to be one desirable method of procedure in course of study formulation in the field of science in the high school.

In substance, the outline contends: that any secondary school subject whenever offered should contribute its relative share to the aims of secondary education as a whole; that education should help pupils to make adequate adjustments to their changing environments as well as to assist them in helping to create favorable environing conditions; that subject matter in science should preferably be organized functionally and without slavish regard to the traditional subject line divisions, but that leeway should be given as to the exact arrangement of subject matter dependent in part upon local conditions of the school system; that some concepts and content of science should be thought of as fundamental to all pupils in the high school, and that other concepts and content are more important for those who continued the study of science after graduation from the high school; that while preferably numerous sources of science content should be used, nevertheless the adaptation of textbook materials will necessarily continue to be the largest single source, and, that therefore, these should be chosen with the greatest of intelligence and care.

7. *Generalizations based upon the findings ascertained through an examination of 300 courses of study in vogue.*—Combining the phases, namely, territory and years included, with forms and labelings given, and size of publications, the following generalizations are warranted. The materials examined covered publications issued either during or after the year 1931-32; the three hundred courses examined and distributed over sixteen states were representative, but did not

include all of the best materials now in use among N.C.A. schools. On the whole, little consistency was found with reference to the labeling used as captions on the publications, and wide variation prevailed as to the number of pages included, the range being from a few pages to several hundred in number.

Again, combining other features, such as, the manner of statement of aims and their general characterization, with the form of organization and the nature of the content of subject matter, five generalizations can be made with reference to aims, and also five with reference to content: In the first place, in the effort of the schools to state the aims of teaching the different subjects in relation to general objectives of secondary education, as well as the statement of aims under subject groups, subjects, and teaching units, are numerous, and perhaps unnecessary duplications occur; in the second place, frequent confusion is manifested in the interchangeable use of "general and "specific" aims as listed under "subject groups" and "subjects," or under other subject matter divisions; in the third place, some schools have increased their total number of aims very voluminously; in the fourth place, in some instances, statements of aims accompany "teaching units," "topical," and other subject matter divisions, and in some instances they do not; in the fifth place, while the tendency is, on the whole, to state aims for the teaching of different subject matter divisions, there appears to be no underlying procedure consciously in mind among the different school systems for listing aims.

Five generalizations relative to the organization and the nature of the content of subject matter are also submitted: First, the most frequent tendency manifested was to organize subject matter according to "teaching units," or else according to topical divisions; second,

so-called "teaching units," and "topical" divisions appeared to be used interchangeably with considerable frequency; third, the total number of teaching units or topical divisions with respect to any one field varied considerably among the different school systems; fourth, on the whole, no underlying procedure appeared to be consciously in mind in determining either the nature, or number of subject matter divisions included, among the different school systems; fifth, as previously intimated, subject matter divisions of all kinds whatsoever, on the whole, appeared to represent or reflect content taken from the high school textbooks in the various fields.

With reference to the incorporation of other elements than the statement of aims, and content of subject matter, it was found that in the majority of cases such elements, as for example, suggestions pertaining to methods of teaching, lesson plans, provision for individual differences, and so forth, were not copiously represented. However, in a comparatively large number of instances, a tendency to incorporate such elements as suggestions to teachers of classroom practice did appear in the published courses of study.

With respect to the incorporation of an underlying philosophy of education and of curriculum materials within published courses of study, there was found to be wide variation among the N.C.A. schools. In general it may be said that a considerable number of guiding principles, underlying policies, or points of view were found scattered throughout published courses of study, that is, they were most frequently found embodied within and interspersed throughout the courses of study. Relatively few of the schools labeled or captioned explicitly these guiding policies and principles. At the close of this examination of additional courses during the year 1933-34,

and taking into account the inventory made during the previous years, it is felt that a justifiable recommendation can be made, namely, that it would increase the meaning and value of the courses of study in practice, if a clearly outlined and definitely stated policy or body of principles or philosophy always accompanied the courses of study published by respective school systems. In

the light of the apparent great variety of procedures in course of study publication, and in the light of obvious waste in expenditure of energy and duplication, it does not seem inadvisable to suggest that course of study commissions or unifying agencies inclusive and representative in personnel, might well be organized in different regional areas to cooperate with local school systems.

SIXTY YEARS OF CURRICULUM OFFERINGS IN A CITY HIGH SCHOOL

OTTO F. DUBACH

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IN RECENT years the study of trends of subject matter in secondary schools has received increasing attention. Monograph No. 19, *Programs of Studies*, in the National survey of Education series should add to the interest in such a study. The editors of the monograph record the work done by Stout in 1921, which was later amplified by Van Dyne in 1931. They bring that study as well as one made by Bradley in 1929, up to the present time. They also continue to the present date, the investigation of Counts in 1926. Counts recorded the subject matter in thirty-five schools in fifteen cities scattered over the entire United States. Central High in Kansas City was included in that number. Stout alone goes back of 1900 for his material. Counts records the number of pupils taking each subject. The Editors of Monograph No. 19 make use both of subject offerings and of pupil choice among such offerings. The other studies, in common apparently with most other investigations of the same nature, confine themselves to subject offerings, not pupil acceptance of such offerings.

The purpose of the present study is to ascertain, by decades, the subject trends in Central High School for the past sixty years. The school was organized in 1867. Its records are fairly complete and accurate since 1872, with the exception of the year 1878-79. The study includes the work accepted for graduation for eighteen pupils graduated in 1875-76, for forty in 1883-84, for one hundred out of one hundred and seventeen graduated in 1893, and for one

hundred graduates, by random sampling, for each tenth year since 1893 up to 1933 (records traced alphabetically until one hundred acceptable records were obtained). The numbers for the first two decades are raised proportionately to one hundred for ease in comparison. The study assumes that subject selections afford a better basis for comparison than subject offerings. The latter represent possibilities, not actual acceptances. Graduates only are compared so that all four years of school work may be fairly evaluated. The early decades in any school show a much larger mortality than do present times. So subjects which come in the earlier high school years show a greater relative pupil acceptance in those earlier decades if the records of those who attended school are studied, rather than those who were graduated.

The study confines itself to records of pupils who did all their high school work in Central. Those coming from other schools by transcript occasionally furnished subjects not included in the Central courses of study. The records for the first two decades were inserted in a book intended for elementary school grades. The high school marks were coded in a way to make them difficult to interpret. They give evidence of occasional error. But since subject offerings were few in number, deductions for the purposes of this study are probably approximately correct. The department division of subjects follows that used by the editors of *Programs of Studies*. They differ slightly from those used by the school itself.

Table I which follows indicates the subject distribution of 100 graduates each decade. The numbers in each column represent the per cent of that 100 pupils who took the subject, opposite which the numbers are listed. Half year subjects or year subjects giving half

credit are marked $\frac{1}{2}$. The totals for each department column indicate the number of year units which the 100 pupils in that decade offered in that department toward graduation. To avoid fractions in these totals, if any sum includes a fraction it is counted as an additional unit.

TABLE I
DEPARTMENTAL DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS PER 100 PUPILS

DEPARTMENT	YEAR						
	1875-76	1883-84	1893	1903	1913	1923	1933
<i>English and Speech Arts</i>							
First Year English	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Second Year English . .	77	100	100	100	100	100	100
Third Year English . . .				100	100	80	100
Hist. of Eng. Literature	66	73	83	100	59	27	23
Shakespeare	30						
Senior Themes					5		
Debate						10	
Newsriting						12	13
Grammar Review—							
Fourth Year			33				
Expression—First Year.		100	48	27	43	($\frac{1}{2}$)42	($\frac{1}{2}$)49
Expression—Second							
Year				3		($\frac{1}{2}$)18	($\frac{1}{2}$)18
Drama						6	
Public Speaking					5	($\frac{1}{2}$) 4	($\frac{1}{2}$) 8
TOTAL in Units	273	373	364	430	412	367	374
<i>Mathematics</i>							
Arithmetic—Higher . . .	100	100	($\frac{1}{2}$)86	($\frac{1}{2}$) 8	($\frac{1}{2}$) 7		
Algebra—First Year . .	100	100	100	100	100	100	82
Algebra—Second Year .	($\frac{1}{2}$)17			($\frac{1}{2}$)100	($\frac{1}{2}$)49	($\frac{1}{2}$)25	11
Algebra—College				($\frac{1}{2}$) 5	($\frac{1}{2}$) 3	($\frac{1}{2}$) 1	
Geometry—Plane	100	100	100	100	100	70	51
Geometry—Solid				($\frac{1}{2}$) 1	($\frac{1}{2}$)23	($\frac{1}{2}$) 8	($\frac{1}{2}$) 5
Trigonometry	($\frac{1}{2}$)43		($\frac{1}{2}$)29	33	($\frac{1}{2}$) 8	($\frac{1}{2}$)11	($\frac{1}{2}$) 4
Surveying	($\frac{1}{2}$)38		($\frac{1}{2}$)22				
College Mathematics . .				8			
Analytics					($\frac{1}{2}$) 2		
Applied Mathematics . .							24
TOTAL in Units	349	300	369	282	246	203	173
<i>Foreign Languages</i>							
Latin—First Year	55	38	75	82	79	48	31
Latin—Second Year . .	43	30	54	70	58	30	21
Latin—Third Year . . .	43	25	35	50	30	10	2
Latin—Fourth Year . .	17	18	18	29	14	5	1
TOTAL in Units	158	111	182	231	181	93	55
Greek—First Year	23	5	16	19	1		
Greek—Second Year . .	11	3	9	11			
Greek—Third Year . . .	6		5	7			
TOTAL in Units	40	8	30	37	1		

DEPARTMENT	YEAR						
	1875-76	1883-84	1893	1903	1913	1923	1933
German—First Year ..	55	55	51	21	26		3
German—Second Year.	43	43	30	4	18		2
German—Third Year ..	28	28	15	1	8		
German—Fourth Year.			6		4		
TOTAL in Units	126	126	102	26	56		5
French—First Year ...		23	15	8	20	17	19
French—Second Year .		20	3	2	10	11	12
French—Third Year ..				2	2	9	3
French—Fourth Year .				1	1	7	
TOTAL in Units		43	18	13	33	44	34
Spanish—First Year ..		16	16	13	31	24	24
Spanish—Second Year .		5	5	5	19	14	20
Spanish—Third Year ..					9	3	5
Spanish—Fourth Year .					5	2	1
TOTAL in Units		21	21	18	64	43	50
TOTAL for All Languages	324	309	353	325	335	180	144
<i>Science</i>							
Astronomy	($\frac{1}{2}$)83	($\frac{1}{2}$)20	($\frac{1}{2}$)20	($\frac{1}{2}$)17	($\frac{1}{2}$) 4		
Chemistry	($\frac{1}{2}$)33	($\frac{1}{2}$)69	($\frac{1}{2}$)87	92	63	43	21
Mental and Moral Science	83	100					
Natural Philosophy or Physics	61	100	($\frac{1}{2}$)96	($\frac{1}{2}$)90	50	39	32
Physiology	($\frac{1}{2}$)43	($\frac{1}{2}$)43	($\frac{1}{2}$)100	($\frac{1}{2}$)86	($\frac{1}{2}$)81	($\frac{1}{2}$) 9 (Yr.) 12	
Geology	($\frac{1}{2}$)43	($\frac{1}{2}$)48	($\frac{1}{2}$)18	($\frac{1}{2}$)26			
Zoology		($\frac{1}{2}$)25	($\frac{1}{2}$)31	($\frac{1}{2}$)20	14	($\frac{1}{2}$)58	36
Botany		($\frac{1}{2}$)15	($\frac{1}{2}$)30	($\frac{1}{2}$)10	($\frac{1}{2}$)21	($\frac{1}{2}$)61	19
Physiography		($\frac{1}{2}$) 5	($\frac{1}{2}$)45	($\frac{1}{2}$)48	21	1	
Psychology			($\frac{1}{2}$)75	($\frac{1}{2}$)15	($\frac{1}{2}$)14	($\frac{1}{2}$)25	($\frac{1}{2}$)29
Meteorology				($\frac{1}{2}$) 7			
Chemistry Qualitative Analysis					4		
Strength of Materials .					($\frac{1}{2}$) 3		
General Science						32	45
Hygiene						($\frac{1}{2}$)52	
Biology							63
TOTAL in Units	245	313	250	246	214	230	248
<i>Social Science</i>							
Civics	($\frac{1}{2}$)94	($\frac{1}{4}$)45	($\frac{1}{2}$)95	($\frac{1}{2}$)93	($\frac{1}{2}$)79	16	100
History, Gen. or World	11	100	85	90			94
History, American				61	45	32	100
History, Ancient					97	89	
History, Modern					41	64	
History, English			($\frac{1}{2}$)11	($\frac{1}{2}$) 9			
Economics			($\frac{1}{2}$)61	($\frac{1}{2}$)27	($\frac{1}{2}$)12	($\frac{1}{2}$)46	($\frac{1}{2}$)37
Sociology						($\frac{1}{2}$)46	($\frac{1}{2}$)37
TOTAL in Units	58	123	169	216	229	247	331

DEPARTMENT	YEAR						
	1875-76	1883-84	1893	1903	1913	1923	1933
<i>Commerce</i>							
Bookkeeping, First Year			31	10	19	22	23
Bookkeeping, Second Year					6	9	5
Law—Common or Commercial				(1/2) 52	(1/2) 10	(1/2) 24	(1/2) 28
Shorthand, First Year .				8	32	26	33
Shorthand, Second Year					9	12	15
Typewriting, First Year					(1/2) 29	(1/2) 46	(1/2) 41
Typewriting, Second Year					(1/2) 9	(1/2) 15	(1/2) 17
Penmanship					(1/2) 20		
Geography— Commercial					(1/2) 29	(1/2) 27	(1/2) 15
Arithmetic—Commercial					(1/2) 43	(1/2) 25	(1/2) 6
First Lessons in Business						1	
Salesmanship—Vocations						(1/2) 19	(1/2) 20
Business English						15	(1/2) 16
Office Training							(1/2) 21
TOTAL in Units			31	44	136	163	157
<i>Art</i>							
Art—First Year		(1/2) 10	(1/2) 24	(1/2) 13	(1/2) 21	(1/2) 21	(1/2) 21
Art—Second Year			(1/2) 9	(1/2) 3	(1/2) 15	(1/2) 8	(1/2) 8
Art—Third Year			(1/2) 2		(1/2) 3	(1/2) 4	(1/2) 4
Art—Fourth Year			(1/2) 1		(1/2) 1	(1/2) 1	(1/2) 1
TOTAL in Units			5	18	8	20	17
<i>Music</i>							
Music—Vocal, 1st yr. .			(1/2) 4	(1/2) 21	(1/2) 11	(1/2) 28	
Music—Vocal, 2nd yr. .			(1/2) 1	(1/2) 4	(1/2) 2	(1/2) 9	
Music—Vocal, 3rd yr. .				(1/2) 2	(1/2) 2	(1/2) 3	
Music—Appreciation ..					(1/2) 5		
Harmony						2	2
Outside Music						1	
Orchestra—First Year .				(1/2) 5	(1/2) 5	(1/2) 5	
Orchestra—Second Year					(1/2) 2	(1/2) 3	
Orchestra—Third Year .						(1/2) 2	
Band—First Year						(1/2) 4	
Band—Second Year ..						(1/2) 3	
Band—Third Year						(1/2) 2	
TOTAL in Units				3	14	17	32
<i>Industrial Arts</i>							
Drafting—First Year .				(1/2) 10	(1/2) 23	(1/2) 12	
Drafting—Second Year .				(1/2) 4	(1/2) 16	(1/2) 6	
Drafting—Third Year .				(1/2) 3	(1/2) 11	(1/2) 3	
Drafting—Fourth Year .				(1/2) 2	(1/2) 7	(1/2) 1	
Woodwork—Joinery ..					(1/2) 9		
Woodwork—Turning ..					(1/2) 20		
Woodwork—First Year .						(1/2) 27	
Woodwork—Second Year						(1/2) 2	
Printing—First Year ..					(1/2) 18	(1/2) 18	
Printing—Second Year .					(1/2) 5	(1/2) 10	
Forging					(1/2) 11		
Auto Mechanics							4
General Shop							(1/2) 10
TOTAL in Units					10	60	49

DEPARTMENT	YEAR						
	1875-76	1883-84	1893	1903	1913	1923	1933
<i>Home Economics</i>							
Foods—First Year				($\frac{1}{2}$) 16	($\frac{1}{2}$) 18	($\frac{1}{2}$) 16	
Foods—Second Year ..				($\frac{1}{2}$) 4	($\frac{1}{2}$) 5	($\frac{1}{2}$) 3	
Clothing—First Year .				($\frac{1}{2}$) 12	($\frac{1}{2}$) 32	($\frac{1}{2}$) 25	
Clothing—Second Year.				($\frac{1}{2}$) 10	($\frac{1}{2}$) 19	($\frac{1}{2}$) 15	
Millinery					($\frac{1}{2}$) 20		
Clothing—Third Year .							($\frac{1}{2}$) 3
TOTAL in Units					21	47	31
<i>Physical Education</i>							
Gymnasium, Games,							
Swimming:							
First Year				($\frac{1}{2}$) 46	($\frac{1}{2}$) 71	($\frac{1}{2}$) 96	($\frac{1}{2}$) 93
Second Year				($\frac{1}{2}$) 15	($\frac{1}{2}$) 49	($\frac{1}{2}$) 47	($\frac{1}{2}$) 65
Third Year					($\frac{1}{2}$) 20	($\frac{1}{2}$) 22	($\frac{1}{2}$) 25
Fourth Year						($\frac{1}{2}$) 7	($\frac{1}{2}$) 9
TOTAL in Units				31	70	86	96
<i>R.O.T.C.</i>							
First Year						($\frac{1}{2}$) 20	($\frac{1}{2}$) 16
Second Year						($\frac{1}{2}$) 6	($\frac{1}{2}$) 12
Third Year						($\frac{1}{2}$) 2	($\frac{1}{2}$) 9
TOTAL in Units						14	19
TOTAL for Gymnasium and R.O.T.C.				31	70	100	115

At first the school offered two curricula, one classical, one general. The classical course required four years of Latin, two of Greek. Both courses had a common base of Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry; and English for two years. The general course demanded English Literature, Natural Philosophy, (later designated as Physics), and Mental Science. It is interesting to note that for the first two years, Latin and German had virtually the same numbers. Although Botany, Physical Geography, and two years of French were offered, there were no classes in these subjects until several years later.

The records for 1883 show few changes in subject matter, but an occasional change in subject popularity. Expression, then known of course as Elocution, was added as a required subject. Arithmetic, Algebra and Geometry remained constants. Latin and German continued

rivals on about equal terms. French now had quite a vogue. Science expanded to include Zoology, Botany and Physical Geography. General History was now a required subject. Civics, once almost universally accepted, lost half its following. Superintendent Greenwood, in 1883, recommended a Business course, to include Bookkeeping, Drawing, Civics, Political Economy and Law.

By 1893 the number of courses had increased to six. They were designated as Classical, Scientific, Latin-English, Modern Language and Business. Their common core included two years of English, a year and a half of Algebra, one-half year each of Physiology and Arithmetic, and a year each of Geometry, Physics and Mental Science. The Classical course required four years of Latin and three of Greek. The Scientific prepared for teaching. It was also the course recommended for those who did not ex-

pect to go to college. The Latin-English course was pointed toward law and medicine. The Board of Education minutes offer additional interesting information. "It also furnishes a course for the children of those parents who think that two years of Latin are necessary for a liberal education." The Modern Language course required a total of four years of German, French and Spanish. The Business course included the first two years of the English course and was regarded as a short cut to a business career. It is clear that rigid adherence to any one course or to the core of requirements was not demanded. Arithmetic, for example, was taken by only 86 pupils instead of 100 pupils. Latin was increasingly popular. German held its own. French lost by the introduction of two years of Spanish. Mental Science was changing to Psychology. Nine science subjects were each allowed a semester's time. General History gave way a little to English History and Political Economy. The latter was very popular. Sixty-one out of one hundred elected it. Thirty pupils elected a year of Bookkeeping. Ten chose Drawing, a half unit for a year's work.

Second year Expression, Solid Geometry, College Algebra, a review course called College Mathematics, Meteorology, Law, Shorthand, three additional years of Drawing, and two years of Vocal Music for credit appeared by 1903. Manual Training High School had been established in 1897. So Central became increasingly classical in tone. Eighty-two per cent now chose one year of Latin, seventy, two years, half persisted for three years, and twenty-nine per cent carried a fourth year. Greek was again fairly strong. The Modern Languages all lost ground. American History now appeared. For the first time credit was given for Physical Training. There was no college in the city, so the school offered several college subjects.

By 1913, third year English of the half-composition, half-literature type had come in as a required subject. A few pupils received credit for Senior Themes. Public Speaking first appeared. Its instructor, Mr. Preston K. Dillenbeck, asserts Central was the first school in the United States to establish such a course for credit. The college idea was again in evidence in the introduction of Analytics, Qualitative Analysis in Chemistry, and Strength of Materials. Chemistry, Physics, Zoology and Physiography had become year subjects. Geology and Meteorology disappeared. Ancient History and Medieval and Modern History replaced General History. English History disappeared. Economics lost ground heavily. The Business course took more definite form with the addition of second year Bookkeeping, second year Shorthand, two years of Typewriting, Penmanship, Commercial Geography, and Commercial Arithmetic. Art was reduced to two years. Music increased to three. Orchestra, for credit, now appeared. Four years of Drafting were added, as were also two years of Domestic Science and two of Domestic Art. Physical Education gained materially. Latin still held its preeminence, but Greek had nearly disappeared. The Modern Languages had more than regained their lost ground.

Kansas City Junior College began as a part of Central. By 1915 it emerged as a separate organization in its own building. Naturally this establishment caused a study of the relative field of the high schools and of the new college. In 1915 the multiple-curriculum plan in the high schools was replaced by the constant-with-variables type, as Koos defines it. The new requirements included two three-year majors, one in English, and one in one other academic field, or in Commerce; and two two-year minors. One minor could be made up of a group

of subjects requiring no preparation. The constants included the major in English, one year of Algebra, one of Science and two of Social Science. The number of city high schools had increased to four, three of which were of the comprehensive type. In 1919 the establishment of Central Junior High School placed all the Freshman work in that institution. The movement toward exploratory or general subjects in Junior High fields now affected the offerings in the local schools. In turn the same tendency made

the addition of First Lessons in Business, Salesmanship, and Business English. Harmony, Music Appreciation, and credit for private work in either the Vocal or the Instrumental field were added. The Industrial Arts expanded through the introduction of Woodwork, Forging, and Printing. Increasing interest in Home Economics added a course in Millinery. The World War also brought in R.O.T.C. as an elective.

In 1930 the major and minor plan was dropped, largely because of difficulty in

TABLE II
SUMMARY BY DEPARTMENTS OF SUBJECTS TAKEN BY 100 GRADUATES EACH DECADE
Figures Show Number of Unit Credits, Not Number of Subject Divisions

DEPARTMENT	YEAR						
	1875-76	1883-84	1893	1903	1913	1923	1933
English	273	373	364	430	412	367	374
Mathematics	349	300	369	282	246	203	173
Language	324	288	353	325	335	180	144
Science	245	313	250	246	214	230	248
Social Science	58	123	169	216	229	247	331
Commerce			31	44	136	163	156
Art			5	18	8	20	17
Music				3	14	17	32
Industrial Arts					10	60	49
Home Economics					21	47	31
Physical Education				31	70	100	115
TOTAL in Units	1249	1397	1541	1595	1695	1634	1660
AVERAGE Number of Units per Pupil	12.5	14	15.4	16	17	16.3	16.6

itself manifest in the Senior High field.

The English courses, by 1923, illustrate the growing tendency toward exploration. Debate, News writing, or Drama could be substituted for third and fourth year English. To give room for them, Expression was reduced to half credit per year. Higher Arithmetic finally disappeared, as did also the college type of subjects including College Algebra, Analytics, Astronomy, Qualitative Analysis, and Strength of Materials. The bitter feeling resulting from the World War removed German. Sociology appeared. The Commerce field expanded by

administration, and because of faulty selections by pupils. The State Department of Education now demanded an increase in Social Science requirements. The present course of study includes ten constant units. The required core includes three years of English; one year of Mathematics, which may be either Applied Mathematics, offered in the Freshman year only, or Algebra; two years of Science, one of which must be either General Science or Biology, the former offered in Junior High, the latter in Senior; three years of Social Science, two, Civics and American History, required.

Two years of Physical Education, either Gymnasium or R.O.T.C., or a year of each, complete the requirements. Any other subjects offered can be added to make the total of sixteen units required for graduation.

The class of 1933 was the first to conform to the new requirements. Required subjects gained, of course, at the expense of electives. Debate and Drama had been dropped. About one-fourth of the pupils preferred the Freshman Mathematics course to Algebra. A few pupils later

small number of pupils now elected Mathematics beyond the second year. Geometry, a required constant for forty years, now elective, lost half its numbers. Chemistry and Physics lost ground to the Natural Sciences. World History had been substituted for Ancient and Modern History. Band and Orchestra gained materially.

In 1875 twelve years or units were considered sufficient for graduation. By 1883 fourteen were required, but there is evidence that exceptions were frequent-

TABLE III
DEPARTMENT DISTRIBUTION ON PERCENTAGE BASIS FROM FIGURES SHOWN IN TABLE II

DEPARTMENT	YEAR						
	1875-76	1883-84	1893	1903	1913	1923	1933
English	22	26	24	27	24	23	22
Mathematics	28	22	24	18	15	12	10
Language	26	21	23	20	20	11	9
Science	19	22	16	15	12	14	16
Social Science	5	9	11	14	14	15	20
Commerce			2	3	8	10	9
Art				1		1	1
Music					1	1	2
Industrial Arts					1	4	3
Home Economics					1	3	2
Physical Education				2	4	6	6
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

found it necessary to take the Algebra to fulfill college entrance requirements. Most western colleges had removed the two year language requirement for entrance. The huge increase in high school enrollment had brought in increasing numbers to whom high school was a terminal field, not a preparatory one. In ten years the percentage of Central graduates going on to college dropped from sixty-five to twenty-five. All of these factors affected adversely the demand for Mathematics, Languages and Pure Science. Less than a third of the graduates had elected Latin. German, returning in 1927, made little progress. French and Spanish, for their first two years, were able to hold their own. A very

ly granted. From 1890 to 1915, fifteen units became the number necessary for graduation. The high school principal, however, under certain conditions, could reduce the number to fourteen. For the next fifteen years, the minimum requirement was fifteen units. In 1930 this was raised to sixteen units, of which ten were required.

The program of studies in Central was at first divided into five department fields, all academic. Commerce and Art were added by 1893. Four other departments, Music, Industrial Arts, Home Economics, and Physical Education appeared in the next decade. Since 1910 subject divisions have continued to expand. The six newer fields in forty years have steady-

ly increased their share of the pupil load from two per cent in 1893 to twenty-three per cent in 1933. English and Science have stayed fairly constant. English was twenty-two per cent both in 1875 and in 1933, and varied only from one to five per cent from that figure in the other decades. Science changed a little more. Nineteen per cent in 1875 ascended to twenty-two in 1883, reached a low mark of twelve in 1913, and was back to sixteen in 1933. Social Science is the one field to show a steady increase,

came between 1900 and 1913, when it increased nearly forty per cent. Again, the increase from decade to decade has been nearly altogether in the new department fields. They contributed ten out of thirteen new subjects in 1903, seventeen out of twenty in 1913. The total number of subject divisions in 1933 was three times that of 1875.

SUMMARY

1. A study of the programs of subjects over a sixty-year period in the history of

TABLE IV
NUMBER OF SUBJECT OFFERINGS DECADE BY DECADE

DEPARTMENT	YEAR						
	1875-76	1883-84	1893	1903	1913	1923	1933
English	4	4	5	6	7	10	8
Mathematics	6	3	5	8	9	6	5
Language	10	11	15	16	17	12	13
Science	6	9	9	10	9	10	8
Social Science	2	2	4	4	4	5	5
Commerce				2	10	12	12
Art			1	4	2	4	4
Music				2	4	8	10
Industrial Arts					4	9	10
Home Economics					4	5	5
Physical Education				2	3	4	4
TOTAL	28	29	40	54	73	85	84

decade by decade. In 1933 it received one-fourth of each pupil's time, being exceeded only by English. Mathematics and Language have lost steadily nearly every decade. The former now gets little more than a third of the time it received sixty years ago. The required first year of Mathematics furnishes more than half of that. Language has suffered a similar ultimate loss. The relatively increasing importance attached to Physical Education since the World War is shown by the fact that on a class period basis it now exceeds both Mathematics and Language.

The number of separate subject offerings has increased every decade except the last. The period of rapid growth

Central High School shows a steady increase in the number and in the variety of courses offered to the pupil.

2. The number of units required for graduation has gradually increased to the present standard of 16 units.

3. The newer subjects have made a steady gain, chiefly at the expense of Mathematics and Languages.

4. English and Science, though marked by continuous changes in content and in emphasis, have been fairly constant.

5. Social Science has made the greatest continuous gain.

6. For the first thirty years the trend was toward college entrance. For the past thirty years the trend has been increasingly toward immediate life preparation.

CURRICULUM RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION¹

I. WHAT INITIATIVE SHALL THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION TAKE IN RELATION TO THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM?

WILL FRENCH
Tulsa, Oklahoma

THE North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has long recognized that the maintenance of mutually agreeable relationships between and among the secondary schools and colleges in its territory depends largely upon the quality of the educational opportunity offered to students by both colleges and secondary schools. The standards of the Association which apply to either the college or the secondary school group, though *quantitatively* stated, are in reality efforts to measure and count the things that have seemed to effect the *quality* of educational opportunity which an institution could offer. It is a case in which the quantity which we measure is in reality the substance which we hope for. It is not surprising, therefore, that this Association, by Article V, Section 6 of its constitution, created a commission which "Shall define unit courses of study in various subjects and shall consider the curriculum of all classes of institutions included within the Association." Nor is it surprising either that early in the course of its work the Commission shifted its attention to the qualitative aspects of the task and declared, that "The Committee has not undertaken to formulate organized cur-

ricula either as to units of instruction or as to programs of studies. No attention has been given to the quantitative aspects to curriculum making." And again: "... it [the curriculum] cannot be dealt with fruitfully until objectives have been determined and applied in such a way as to secure types of subject-matter and activities most valuable for their realization. This is only another way of saying that *qualitative values* must receive detailed consideration before the question of quantity can be intelligently considered."¹

Before one can know how much of any subject-matter is desired we must have a standard of value by which to measure its contribution. This implies a social and educational philosophy by which to gauge the place of secondary education in modern American life. That the commission and its committees have consistently held such a philosophy is obvious to any one familiar with their work and publications. Its point of view Willing has called "life preparatory"—a term which if shorn of any implication of preparation for adult life only, adequately represents the commission's position. Subject matter becomes of value then, in the eyes of the Commission, if it contributes to the creation in students of the abilities and dispositions necessary

¹A report made by the Functional Units Committee of the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula at the time of the annual meeting in Chicago, April, 1934. The members of that subcommittee were Mr. French, *Chairman*, and C. L. Cushman, Denver; A. K. Loomis, Chicago; R. L. Linquist, Columbus; T. W. Gosling, Akron. The report is made in three parts.—THE EDITOR.

¹*Proceedings of the North Central Association*, 1924, Part III, p. 4. See also L. W. Webb and others (editors), *High School Curriculum Reorganization*, Chapter I, The North Central Association, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1933.

for living at higher levels in the four fields of living represented by the four ultimate objectives: Maintenance of health and physical fitness, the use of leisure time, the engaging in vocational activities, and the sustenance of social relationships. Or to put it another way, subject-matter is valuable if it *functions* in the creation of abilities and dispositions which in turn function in the kind of living implied by the immediate objectives falling under each of these ultimate objectives. Thus the Commission advocates what it calls a *functional* approach to the problem of curriculum organization and development. This functional approach differs from the traditional approach to curriculum construction because it includes only the traditional subject matter of secondary education which contributes directly to the creation of these desirable abilities and dispositions. It also reaches out to include other new subject-matter if it gives promise of being effective in developing the requisite ability and dispositions. It differs, furthermore, in that it utilizes subject-matter in an order and an arrangement dictated by its use and value in developing some desired ability or in creating a disposition, and not (as traditionally) in a logical order determined by its contribution to the further study of more and similar subject-matter. Thus the Commission in recent years has been interested in the development of functionally organized units as opposed to subject organized units. That is, it seeks to provide opportunity for students to acquire a desirable ability and disposition through subject-matter and activities best arranged to produce a maximum of the desired ability or disposition. In providing students such an opportunity in relation to some ability or disposition falling under the health ultimate objective, for instance, a functionally organized unit would require that subject-

matter and activities now assigned to the science laboratory, the library, the social science, and home economics class rooms and the gymnasium be organized and used by the teacher best to promote the ability or disposition being sought. A subject-organization unit would seek to promote the ability or disposition but with devout respect for subject and departmental lines. Thus the science teacher would promote the disposition or ability as far as he could, and still teach science. So also, with the social study teacher, the home economics teacher, and the teacher of physical education—and in a typical situation, none of them would know much about when or how the others were seeking to inculcate their share of the ability or disposition. In the latter case, teachers promote the objectives of secondary education as well as they may and still be subject-teachers; in the former case, they teach children without the artificial restrictions which subject and departmental lines impose. Even the newer integrated or “general” courses, such as general science, social study, or biology, (though fusing two or more subjects into one “integrated” subject) still usually assume the necessity for restricting the subject-matter presented therein to that which formerly belonged to one department. By ignoring the old subject divisions these integrated courses half admit the desirability of a more functional approach, from the attainment of which they are usually, though not always, estopped by their respect for the traditional departmental lines. Frequently under traditional practice the perfectly natural learning situations to be found in life in the school and community are deliberately drawn and quartered in order that each of several subjects may have a piece to fit the previously conceived ideas of what may appropriately be taught in that subject. If the school is a little squeamish about such cold

blooded butchery as this, it uses the integrated or general courses. In this case, one commonly finds needless duplication between and among departments each using the same learning situation but emphasizing different phases of it. Thus in a biology for secondary school use, one finds a unit on "How is Human Life Conserved?" It focuses the subject matter of biology on the problem of human health. It necessarily includes something of the social aspects of health in the community. Turning to a recent published community civics, one finds a unit entitled "Good Health and How to Get It." It makes a socio-civic approach to the problem of health, but obviously must include some of the science material found in the health unit in biology. If the two books are used in two departments of the same school, we have an unintentional and probably needless duplication. A functionally organized unit in the field of health starting with one or more necessary abilities or dispositions would utilize all "subject-matter" which gave promise of contributing to the creation or strengthening of such abilities or dispositions, without regard to whether it is now considered as science, social studies, or home economics. If we want children to acquire certain abilities and dispositions which are desirable in meeting a given health situation in life and if knowledge of, skill in, or appreciation or understanding of, what we call subject matter in school contributes to the acquisition of these abilities and dispositions, why should not such subject matter be organized without reference to its present departmental location? Why should it not be organized for use right at the place and time at which it best functions in the attainment of these desired abilities and dispositions? This is precisely what this Commission has sought to do through its functional approach to the curriculum. It has advo-

cated such an approach, has encouraged high schools to develop such units, and has advocated the North Central Association's participation directly in the productions of such units.¹

In the two years intervening between the preparation of that report and this one, a different point of view in curriculum construction has gained many supporters. The proponents of this viewpoint hold that it is better educational procedure to present to teacher's suggestive curriculum material with descriptive reports of its use elsewhere rather than to present to teacher's specific and detailed plans for units or courses which (though not intended to restrict the teacher's class room procedure) often have that affect. *The Teachers Guide to Child Development*² is indicative of the type of material which this group considers to be more in harmony with good educational theory. The whole of the questions of the teacher's responsibility for curriculum development and of the teacher's freedom in teaching are involved. Some members of this committee hold to the former or more direct procedure in curriculum construction. Others also see the advantages of the latter or more descriptive procedure. Some committee members favor this Commission's adopting one procedure, some the other. But, having last year presented as part of its report, an example of the direct procedure³ the committee is this year presenting examples of what it considers to be typical of the second or descriptive type of procedure. The purpose of these descriptive reports is not to set a specific pattern of teaching for any teacher, but rather to show him how certain teaching situations were developed in

¹NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, Committee Report, June, 1932.

²State Printing Office, Sacramento, California, 1930.

³*Making the Most of One's Leisure*, Tulsa Public Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1932.

some schools and to encourage him to create a procedure of his own for use in similar situations in his school.

In concluding this report, the chairman of the committee desires to ask the Commission to indicate what course, if any, it desires to pursue in its curriculum work: First, follow the recommendations of the committee of two years ago and take an active part in the construction of curriculum material of the functional type by North Central schools and arrange for its publication to North Central Schools? This is the direct procedure mentioned above. Second, follow the descriptive procedure mentioned above and be responsible only for publishing in the *QUARTERLY* examples of what North Central Schools have done under their own initiative? Under the first plan, this Commission takes the initiative and leads out. Under the second, it lends encouragement and gives approval to what it considers good work. Third, continue to carry forward both types of procedure. There is an apparent inconsistency in this latter course because each procedure grows out of an educational philosophy not easily reconciled with the other. However, the use of both procedures by such a committee as this might be justified on the grounds that in some North Central Association schools, the direct procedure might be the more practicable even though the descriptive procedure were the more theoretically perfect. At any rate, the chairman of the committee feels that the Commission should consider the matter and advise its committee.

Briefly stated, the advantages of each of the two procedures as a method of work for this Commission seems to be as follows:

For the direct procedure:

1. Many teachers are not either by inclination or by training, creative and original. They need definite and specific curriculum material.

2. In many schools teachers are too busy to have time to plan and develop teaching material. They need a course of study to "follow."

3. Many schools do not have the professional material for teachers to use in the process of developing their own curriculum procedures.

4. The teaching of any class, subject or unit in a public school cannot be left largely to the inclination or judgment of the teacher. Her basis for judging what ought to be included is no better if as good as that of the authors of a good textbook or of a carefully developed course of study.

5. A well developed course of study or unit makes ample allowance for each teacher to make such modifications and adaptations as she thinks desirable.

For the descriptive procedure:

1. This Commission should stimulate schools and teachers to improve their own teaching procedures. This descriptive procedure helps to do this. The Commission should not publish approved units or courses of study to be taken as patterns for use as this procedure tends to dictate standards and uniform practices.

2. This Commission should encourage variety in teaching material and method if it desires to serve the best interests of such widely different schools as hold membership in the association. Such standardization as the direct procedure involves often produces a program poorly adapted to community needs.

3. Good teachers do not want to be "tied down" to a prepared course of study. We want to encourage such an independent spirit in teachers. It is better to give these teachers this freedom by not prescribing curriculum materials too definitely even if less capable teachers flounder about for lack of more direction. Most of the latter will find themselves in time, and when they do will be much better teachers than before.

4. Improved curriculum material should grow out of the education of teachers while in service and should lead to more such professional education. The direct procedure with its prepared material does not grow out of the increased education of the teacher, nor lead to it. The description procedure does both. It may seem slow and ineffectual by comparison but education is a process of growth. Growth is a function of time and so while its rate may be increased by stimulation and encouragement, yet growth takes time and we, therefore, must take time if we want growth. Other arguments for both procedures could be writ-

ten but perhaps these serve to define the issues. The problem before the commission is as to future policy with respect to its curriculum activities.¹

We shall now present two reports dealing with the descriptive type of procedure in curriculum work.

II. OPPORTUNITIES FOR EXPRESSION IN AUDIENCE SITUATIONS²

ELI FOSTER
Tulsa, Oklahoma

THE Speech Arts Department of Tulsa Central High School is in reality a laboratory where students have opportunity to develop the abilities they need for adequate self-expression in the various types of audience situations met in the school and community. The students read, speak, and write the speech forms when and as needed in these situations. The work of the department is, therefore, ever changing. Each year brings new problems and new contacts which demand fresh solutions and new adjustments. It is through this variation that the student's interest is buoyed up. Each year the work fits itself to his needs and no longer functions in relation to the needs of the student of ten years ago. Each year an increasingly large number of students is constantly at work in large or small groups or on individual presentations to be used somewhere in the community. The demand on the department from outside sources for its services is huge. The school itself, the churches, the civic clubs, the study clubs, and the radio are constantly drawing material from the department. This kind of service challenges students to meet the occasions with work that is real and sincere.

¹Subsequently the Commission expressed its desire for the committee to institute several curriculum projects in a number of North Central Secondary Schools in which subject matter should be organized effectively to promote important "abilities and dispositions" of value in attaining each of the four objectives of secondary education as stated by the Commission.—THE EDITOR.

²This section of the report was prepared by Mabel McCallum, a senior in Tulsa Central High School, whose major interest is in the speech arts field.

Since the aim of the Department is always toward originality in thought, in acting, and in speaking, the students themselves write much of what they produce or present. For example, the responsibility of writing and presenting a huge pageant (depicting the growth and development of the oil industry for the International Petroleum Exposition to be held in May) has come to the department. Students are assisting in reference work in the fields of history, geography, and science, seeking material from which to form scenes which will be colorful and instructive to those who will view the final presentation. Student research work has begun on the many types of make-up and costumes which will be needed. A knowledge of stage grouping will be obtained by the student actors and student directors. The science, music, athletic, and speech departments are all working together to create a dramatic pageant for a community use.

Next year, the department is to write a pageant on the history of secondary education as preparation for the tercentennial celebration of American Secondary Education. This will call for a Knowledge of History, of the development of educational institutions, and of social conditions. This pageant will require altogether different treatment in writing, acting, and directing from those needed in the oil pageant to be given this May, but each calls for accurate knowledge in several fields, all properly woven together to make the pageant give a true picture. This original work is not confined to pageantry. Each fall a Community Fund Play is written and produced be-

fore various clubs in the city. The Fund play of two years ago written by a student was used by Fund organizations in several states. Last fall, the department produced its first original three act drama. The play was written by one of the speech students and was given as one of the regular speech department plays. The characters were so well drawn that it proved to be one of the best productions of the year. Various rituals for student clubs and organizations are written. The Junior National Honor Society ritual, the Hi-Y and the Keystoneers rituals were written and are acted by members of the clubs who are in most cases speech students. These examples have been given to show something of the variety of dramatic work done. A playlet given for a boy scout evening program requires different treatment from that used in presenting a dramatized session of the World Court before the League of Women Voters. The result is a wide range of invaluable training to the students.

In addition, readers, players, and speakers appear constantly before the civic clubs, church organizations, and miscellaneous groups. Much radio work is done by students. Speech students are used as actors in the weekly school radio programs which seek to show the main objectives of various types of work done in the Tulsa school system. Here a knowledge of radio technique is grasped. The student sound-effect man learns the tricks which build radio atmosphere. Matched voices free from nasality and twang are essential and they are developed, tested, and selected in the voice laboratory.

Besides all these outside demands, the department has school traditions to meet. There are (1) five large assemblies to be planned each week, each student in school to attend two each week, and (2) nine long plays, not original, to be given

each year—two senior plays, two junior plays, one sophomore play, and five Speech Arts Department plays. Plays such as the following illustrate the wide variety in offering and the kind of training opportunity afforded: *Mary Rose*, *Taming of the Shrew*, *Allison's House*, *The Swan*, *The Royal Family*, *Charlie's Aunt*, *Dulcy*, *Beyond the Horizon*, *She Stoops to Conquer*, *The Bat*, *Berkeley Square*, *The Importance of Being Earnest*.

The assemblies of the school are planned on a large scale. There are three class assemblies, and two large general assemblies each week. The programs are planned to keep the student body in touch with the ideals, activities, and educational enterprises of the school, and to capitalize student achievements. Outside speakers appear occasionally, but student participation prevails.

The series of assemblies resembles an extra curricular course, and includes special dates such as Christmas, Thanksgiving, Lincoln's Birthday, which are observed with appropriate programs.

Part I of the assembly program is always the same except for the student leaders. The following ritualistic form is used:

I

Color Ritual	Sea Scouts
Pledge of Allegiance	Assembly
Star-Spangled Banner	Assembly
Student's Creed	Assembly
Led by a selected Student	
School Hymn	Assembly
Scripture and Prayer	Student
Amen Response	Assembly
Comments	Principal

Part II of the assembly, which contains the student chairman's introduction to the theme and the program itself, varies from week to week in theme, substance, and manner of presentation.

The following are the themes of the Assembly programs for 1932-33:

First Assembly of the year

Activities (playlet)
 Scholarship
 Tulsa Investment in Social Welfare
 China
 Loyalty
 Coronation of the Football Queen
 Armistice and Education (original play)
 Statehood (Oklahoma Culture)
 Thanksgiving
 Music
 Books for Young Americans (Cuttings)
 Christmas (Messiah)
 New Year
 Prohibition (Round Table Discussion)
 Thrift (Original Play)
 Music (Band)
 League of Nations Model Assembly
 Science
 Abraham Lincoln
 Music (Glee Club)
 Presidential Inauguration
 Magician (Heaney)
 Music (Orchestra)
 Conservation (State Forester)
 Thomas Jefferson
 Travel
 Easter (Cantata)
 Citizenship (Civitan Orations)
 Leisure
 Fine Arts
 Tom Tom Dedication
 National Honor Society Induction
 Memorial
 Award Assembly
 Farewell Assembly

To add color to the Statehood Assembly, a cutting from Lynn Riggs' *Green Grow the Lilacs* was given. In the Books for Young America Assembly original play *Pioneer Builders in the Middle West* was presented along with original dramatizations from such books as *A Lantern in Her Hand*, *Giants in the Earth*, *The Virginian*, *Cimarron*. In the Abraham Lincoln Assembly, a cutting from Drinkwater's *Abraham Lincoln* was used. The Fine Arts Gallery, an original playlet, was presented to bring out the value of art, in the Fine Arts Assembly. The scene was laid in an Art Gallery and dealt with the types of people gathered there and their reactions to the fine pictures around them. The pic-

tures used on the stage were some of the beautiful paintings which hang in the school corridors. There was a "black-out" of the beautiful real pictures, and some came to life before the eyes of the visitors in the art gallery.

Much time is given to the preparation and production of the assembly programs. The committee which plans the schedule is made up of both faculty and student representatives. The student representation is composed of three delegates from the Senior Class, one from School Life, the school newspaper, and four from the Senate, a student organization. The faculty representation is made up of one delegate from each department, the Dean of Girls, the Director of Stage-Craft, the Director of Speech Arts, the Director of Journalism, the Sponsor of the Speakers' Bureau, a representative from the class directors and two members of the faculty at large. The director of Extra-Curricular Activities acts as chairman. The committee meets once a week. This committee plans the schedule of assemblies and suggests and approves assembly themes. How each theme shall be developed is a problem for the speech arts classes. In this way the school as a whole has a voice in determining what kinds of programs shall be presented, but the youthful originality of the students who plan and produce the assemblies is not hampered.

The speech arts classes are constantly increased in enrollment by students who have become interested in its work through its productions and through an introduction to the fundamentals of good speech which is a part of all English classes of the school where oral English forms a substantial part of the regular class work, or in the junior high school. Even the lower grades develop interest in the speech-arts department by means of their "auditorium activities," their special days- and occasions- programs and the dramatized activities of their class

work in reading, science, and social studies.

Many of the best student speakers in the high school—as contrasted to the players—belong to a school organization of Juniors and Seniors interested in speech, and called the Speakers Bureau. It meets every day for a fifty minute period, the students coming to school twenty minutes early in order to have a longer period than is provided by the regular home room period. Many of the assembly speeches are written and rehearsed here. The members frequently lay down a community-wide barrage of "four minute" speeches on subjects of general interest. There were thirty members in the Speakers Bureau last year. Each student averaged ten talks before some group outside of the school. Of course, the average number of talks before school groups was larger. Students are often called to speak on special occasions in neighboring towns.

In the work done in preparation for these speeches, plays, and programs lies most of the real education of the students.

	<i>Heel</i>
Retired foot	Prostration
Both feet	Respect
Advanced	Suspense

of acquiring some of the more generally useful habits and skills. The following notebook material is indicative of some of the skills sought and drills used in class and at home.

The students become sure of position by studying and applying the Laws of Weight.

Use is made of the heel, middle and ball of feet. Weight is placed according to mood or idea.

The advanced classes study the laws of arms (used for oratory). Examples in affirmation of the arms which are practiced:

The teacher defines
The champion supports
The conservative limits
The patron protects
The saint reveals spiritually
The orator points.

Often in beginning such study the student feels unnatural in the use of gestures on a larger scale. He feels that the gestures "look" artificial. This is due to the newness of big gestures and the lack of relaxation, and, above all, the

<i>Middle</i>	<i>Ball</i>
Deep thought	Defiance
Vulgar ease	Indecision
Animated attention	Explosion

There is biographical, historical, and scientific research to be done in their preparation. There is English composition in their formulation and speech education in their rehearsals and production. What is done in any of these fields of work varies from time to time and from student to student depending upon the activities of the department as a whole and each student in particular. Sometimes, however, in the early work for the younger students, each gets certain fundamental drill and practice varying in amount and type with individual need. There are short daily group practice periods in each course for the purpose

failure to commune with the idea which should move through the gesture. Often the teacher begins the gesture work with the class seated. Gradually they all join the practice. Soon they feel natural. The gestures have become sensible to them, because they have studied the moods which sponsored the movement. Then individual work before the class is begun and freedom of movement is greater. Examples which may be used:

Declaration: "I call on all the sons of New England."
 Negation: "It is a lie."
 Rejection: "Don't touch me."
 Appellation: "Hear my plea."

Salutation: "Oh, King."

Accusation: "There's the man."

Repulsion: "Oh, take it away."

When one gestures without understanding the meaning back of it, it is noticeable and must be corrected. It is, therefore, better for students to be natural and use small gestures. The large classic gestures are introduced to emphasize the importance of relaxation in movement. In Speech I, breath control is learned. The room is equipped with a piano. Exercises to open the throat and to relax the jaw are practiced daily. The fundamentals of tone, intensity, quality, and pitch are introduced. Exercises for elastic tongue and flexible lips work are begun. Some of the exercises are:

I

Pick out easy chair with big arms. Sit with both feet on floor and lean back until you are reclining with both arms resting on the chair arms. Take three breaths. Extend arms over chair arms with fists clenched. Hold body taut and rigid. Lift body on the rigid arms. Hold thirty seconds. Let go all over. You will sink away down. Take easily, lazily, three long breaths. You are ready to use your voice. Recite aloud in full tones something like the last stanza of America. Keep body at ease. Use only voice.

II

Continue in the relaxed position in your chair. Place the first three fingers of your right hand on the soft spot below the breast bone. Press in shortly and at the same time pant like a dog. Repeat the exercise for five or ten minutes. You now realize that the diaphragm controls the breath. Be sure that in the process of inhaling on the breath the diaphragm is pushed out or down or both. And in exhaling it is the diaphragm which comes back into place.

III

In the same position, place your right hand on the diaphragm, your left hand on your chest. Take a deep breath, then repeat aloud in full tones, "Ha! Hi! Ha! Ho! Ho!" Repeat "How old are you?"

Repeat, changing the emphasis:

How old *are* you?

How old *are you*?

How old are you?

IV

If mastery is not obtained, lie down flat on back on floor at home. Master *correct* breathing.

V

If you have abundant breath, but cannot regulate it try to hold the breath as long as possible in "U" or various different vowels on the piano. The length of time will depend upon (1) the amount of breath you let flow out, (2) your depth of breathing. Try to keep the note steady. Follow this with other vowel sounds in the order of their openness. Do not let the muscle of the throat usurp the function of the diaphragm.

VI

Repeat this exercise on an upward scale on thirds and fifths.

VII

Repeat this exercise on a downward scale on thirds and fifths.

VIII

For opening the throat, relaxing jaw, and getting resonance: (1) Ah-m exercise. Open the mouth wide, take a deep breath, relax the jaw, and start to yawn; this opens the throat. But don't finish the yawn. The fauces of the throat are thus raised to permit as big a throat as possible. Sing or speak out a big round "Oh." Prolong it for a second or two, then close the mouth, and let the breath continue through the nose making the *m* sound; work for resonance. Say slowly,

"The murmuring pines and the hemlocks," and

"A mild, mysterious, mournful sighing," and

"A humming all over the tall, white pines"

"A humming of bees."

Resound the tone through the sinuses and all through the cavities of the head.

2. Repeat

M-m-m-m-my-m-m-m-m-may

-w-w-w-way -w-w-w-why

Repeat for five or ten minutes.

3. Another exercise for loosening the jaw is to shake the head back and forth until the jaw has been lowered and is hanging loose. Dip the head forward as if heavy, almost fast asleep, let every muscle of the face drop down, and then begin to shake the head gradually. Practice yawning.

IX

For placement:

1(1) E Place e in front of face Place tongue near roof of mouth. If e needs darkness tongue is lowered at the back.

(2) A Mouth wide, tongue pushing forward and throat open. Father, sergeant, clam, balm, psalm.

(3) i-a-E

Practice words with a- and then slide into e such as eve.

ice, dice, nice, lice, splice

(4) o-o-oo

Lips pursed like the shape of egg, barrel shape width of mouth, tongue grooved, placement in front of nasal cavity.

grove, dove, cove, stove.

(5) u i oo

Lips pursed, more closed than for o. Tongue grooved, work for purple color and richness. Think i, then oo. Mute, flute, dupe, nude.

(6) a a e

ate, bate, late, slate, mate. Tongue near roof on a, nearer on e.

Exercise 2.

Practice te ro-up and down the scale. Up on te, and down on ro.

Exercise 3.

Ya, ye, ya, yo, yu—Lehman's exercise.

Intensity of tone

1. "Over the fence and out" projecting farther each time.

2. Throw voice thru a wall.

Quality

1. To avoid breathy aspirate tones, practice deep breathing.

2. To avoid nasal tones, practice relaxing jaw and opening throat.

3. To avoid throaty tones, practice tongue exercises and lip exercises. Bring tones forward.

4. To avoid hollow, pectoral voice, for normal use, work for head resonance.

X

Inflection—the rise and fall of voice in syllables and words.

(1) Do not hold the tone too long as in a song. It gets monotonous. Plenty of width and variety in width of inflections.

(2) A common fault is that the emphatic inflections are too short.

Practice taking the fifths in singing voice; from c to g; then speak the same inflections.

Many defects of speech are due to *faulty tongue work*. To overcome slovenly, thick articulation practice:

Exercise 1: Stretch the tongue straight out as far as possible in order to stretch the thick part of the tongue at the back.

Exercise 2: Through the tongue making deep groove down the middle.

Exercise 2: Touch the tip of the nose with the tongue.

Exercise 4: Keep the tongue flat on the jaws and widen.

Exercise 5: Put tongue at top of mouth and widen.

1. Exercise for the lips.

1. Stand facing a mirror. Draw your lips back as far as you can with ease. Then push them forward as far as you can with ease. Repeat, exaggerating the sounds:

"oo-wee"

"oo-wy"

Join these sounds

"oo-we-oo-wy"

2. Use *when, where, why* quickly, repeating and repeating.

3. Say "m-m-m-" as rapidly as possible, repeating and repeating.

4. Bring lips together. Repeat, exaggerating the sounds and saying them slowly:

"bee-bee-bee"

"by-both-books"

"make-more-money"

"poppy, puppy, poppy, puppy"

Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers. Dozens of other tongue twisters are good.

Teachers and students are constantly on the watch for individual imperfections such as the "breathy" voices which so many young people have, and the broken vowels so common in middle western speech. Corrective work of the above type is available and prescribed as needed. This work is not compulsory after Speech I and II. It is expected that students in Speech III and IV will continue the study through their personal desire for clear speech which is not colloquial. The teachers hold before the students the idea that the real test of mastery of voice and articulation is to be found in a recitation room, or in the living room, at the student's home, not on the assembly platform, for the latter might be a special performance, while the former would be an unconscious one.

For many students self-expression through character delineation is the most intriguing part of the work. Every opportunity is offered and every encouragement is given for students to do their own interpreting, to express their own feelings, to become more adept at interpreting and

more skillful in revealing through the body and voice what that interpretation is. It is not acting; it is being. Characters are never allowed to be developed through thoughtless imitation. They must be in reality an essence of all persons known to the student of the particular type the student needs to portray. For instance, it does not suffice for a student playing the part of an old, disillusioned man, to go to one old person whom he knows and copy each movement of this person. He must study all old men, all old age, and combine them and color the role with his own personality. Thus he tries to portray the essence of all disillusioned old age. In directing a play which has been directed before by the teacher, students are not asked to reproduce some one else's performance though it was that of a professional. Each student brings his own fresh, youthful, touch to the role. Each cast feels responsible for filling out the skeleton material of the play with the originality and individuality peculiar to its membership. Emphasis is placed not on lines but on the student's understanding of the author's meaning. Lines are never assigned to be learned; as a matter of fact, they "come" through acquaintance with the role. In training to secure the author's meaning, the personality is enlarged and the imagination reaches out. The result may be excellent or just average, but at least it is the students' own work—their expression of themselves.

If the student is unable to reach a role after the director has allowed him for a while to build up inner growth and reaction, she then must point the way to him. Appropriate reactions are considered and various ways of showing these reactions are tried until a desirable one is found. If a student is at first sensitive, shy, and embarrassed, this is by no means a detriment. Such students are cultivated, since the ability to act seldom, if

ever, is found in anything but a sensitive nature.

When asked how such beginners were helped especially to become less aware of weaknesses, and to concentrate upon their natural, strong qualities, the department director said that often, if a beginner feels handicapped in any way which he feels spoils his chance as a speaker, his attention can be called to some strong features with which he is gifted. It is surprising how this helps him to overcome that lack of confidence which consumes him when he thinks too much about some weakness. He, of course, must continue trying to improve his bad points, but realizing that he does have good points gives him confidence to advance.

The class becomes a laboratory for frank, constructive, kindly criticism. In the beginner's work, the good points are stressed; but in Speech III and IV, there is a regular bombardment of student-criticism. Much of this criticism is negative, but this is good, for the advanced students are thus not allowed to become too sure of themselves. The assignments given to all such classes are chosen according to the need which the students have. It may be satire in preference to poetic drama, or high comedy, or a straight-forward, telling presentation of facts. In our large classes, short daily assignments must be given so that every day, half the group may perform. The instructor makes each student feel that the class work is a public performance. This year, in Speech I and II, the class routine has followed a schedule which includes a human interest story, a character from life, five new words for diction, a poem each day. One or more students are in charge each day, and they know a week before when they will be called upon. Pupils are seldom unprepared. If they are, the rest of the class resents it. Following the program, each

member of the class gives criticism and suggestions.

All acting in reality is based on concentration. This is stressed. A speech IV class recently in studying Lady Macbeth's sleep-walking scene discovered that steady, deep concentration is essential. Lady Macbeth's stare, her walk, her intense suffering are all dependent upon the student's ability to concentrate. Often concentration contests are given. The student participants are given a long speech, with words tantalizingly hard to remember, to learn overnight. They then are given a ten minute speech to memorize quickly and repeat to the director. Often times ten minute readings are learned overnight, or a role is repeated in an hour for a one act play. These tests are most interesting experiences. They are approached by several weeks of class study during which the teacher will read at random sentences in a science text book, or perhaps from one upon the technique of drama. The students repeat as well as they can. In three weeks of such work, the improvement in ability to concentrate on material and then reproduce it is remarkable. Character portrayal contests are held after much class work in this line. Ten types of characters must be portrayed by each student. Make-up and costuming may be used. Three to six minutes are allowed. Characters have been used from such plays as:

Great God Brown, Anna Christie, Death Takes a Holiday, Sun Up, Peter Pan, Quality Street, The Man Who Came Back.

Much reading of plays is done. Beginners are required to give written reports, but when the teacher knows the student is reading, reports are no longer demanded. The class room is equipped with many fine books on the theater, speech arts, plays and related fields—always at the students' disposal. Other material, of course, may always be secured from the school library. One type of the departmental test covers knowledge of plays and playwrights—classic and modern.

And so, something of the breadth and scope of the speech arts program in Tulsa Central High school is seen. Every one knows how important it is to be able to express oneself in writing and also in speech. Students need this ability every day in high school and college. Adults need it too. The speech arts department takes the opportunities presented by life in this school and city which helps develop this ability to express oneself adequately and uses them as educational opportunities for everybody involved. The students work hard at this part of their education and enjoy it because it fulfills a spiritual need, for every youth whether he knows it or not yearns for some satisfying form of self-expression.

III. THE SOCIAL SCIENCE ASPECT OF FREE CHOICE ACTIVITIES

LOU L. LABRANT
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I HAVE been asked to discuss free choice activities as factors in a social science program. Let me first give my interpretation of social science. We can, of course, limit that area to studies of history, government, economics, and social institutions; or we may conceive social science as the study of human beings in their relation to their environment. We

may think of this study as a purely intellectual, vicarious investigation; or we may think of it as developing understanding, made up of first hand plus vicarious experience. I prefer the broader interpretation. Such a concept does not, of course, permit any one school department to monopolize the teaching of social science. English, for example, and French, have

as their aims fuller communication by the individual, and an increased understanding, again based on experience, of man's growing success in sharing ideas and feelings. Home economics becomes the place where pupils come to understand more fully such functions as production, purchasing, and distribution.

We are coming to see that wherever possible, study of life functions should begin with experience, and that that experience should be recognized as such by the child. We cannot for example, be satisfied when pupils work together. We must attempt to secure also their understanding of the effect of such cooperation and make an effort at interpreting larger experiences by this understanding. Recently, to illustrate, a group of seventh grade pupils found themselves under obligation to carry on certain monotonous work, of little immediate value to the individuals doing it, but necessary to the completion of a class undertaking. The experience became the basis for study of local factory work, and an eventual introduction to the larger problem of division of labor and of other labor problems in a mechanized society.

If such a social science program of the school is to be based on life functions, we must give consideration not only in our talking, but in our program itself, to the new leisure which is such an amazing development in our generation. I am not talking about the kind of leisure which was probably meant when the so-called cardinal principles were formulated. Neither was our present problem so evident when the North Central set forth the Great Four and included leisure in the list. Provision for those hours when the individual is not carrying on his vocation must be far more extensive than our programs thus far have indicated. If half the prophecies of experts come true, the next generation will have more leisure than a lord or lady ever had. Thus far

unfortunately most of our attention has been directed only to the question of amount of leisure. That seems to me an inadequate measure. As leisure time increases, its uses must also change fundamentally. A man who works four or five hours is not weary in the sense that a man who has worked eight or ten hours is. The worker who once spent his evening in reading may now be expected to have many added hours. He is not likely to spend all of these in the same way. Our whole conception of leisure must therefore change. Undoubtedly it must become more purposeful, more productive, more varied. The lines between vocation and avocation must be less clearly defined. Easily believable is a leisure program in which an individual may learn as well as play; in which he may produce as well as consume and enjoy.

If this increase, enriched leisure is to become an important factor in living, it must likewise have an important place in any school which looks upon the school day as a part of, rather than as a preparation for, living. Thus far our schools have made only slight attempts to offer a rich program of self-directed, valuable activity. We have had, it is true, an extra curricular program, ostensibly intended to fill some leisure hours, and to prepare for adult leisure. But such programs have been poorly balanced, often intended for only a few. We have also tacked the objective of planning for leisure to our English literature and our art and music curricula, but most obviously the label has been an addendum. A course originally intended to instruct in those skills basic to a professional study of literature has been given the title of "training for leisure," and the trick has been thought turned. Interscholastic contests have also been included, regardless of the fact that the games played, and the methods of their promotion are not such as will lead to a particularly intelligent

use of leisure. Indeed, most of our extra curricular activities have been large group activities; few have been individual. They have followed set programs, and offered little variety. We have from them produced a citizenry who, given leisure, can go to games in huge mobs, attend picture shows where they weep or shiver in unison; who drive in long lines over paved paths; or flock together in parks where set amusements are provided. The training for leisure activity by our schools has too frequently been indicated by the phrase, "Let's all get behind this" play, game, or dance.

At the Ohio experimental school we have planned a free choice program, directly aimed to educate *in* (not *for*) the wise use of leisure, and have attempted to provide therein the following opportunities:

1. *To make wise or unwise use of time, and to consider the results.* Far too frequently a child is given no opportunity to waste time during the school program. This experience is left for him after he has reached the age when wasting time costs him heavily in product, social standing, often life success. Suddenly faced with the opportunity to loaf, he often fails. We make the use of school leisure a real use of leisure, with its attendant opportunities and temptations. This does not mean, however, that we do not assist the child, nor that we do not help him to see the consequence of his choice.

2. *To extend the interests of the work period.* Unless we are to assume that an individual's work is a disagreeable matter, from which he is constantly seeking relief, we should expect him to continue phases of this work if given opportunity. We therefore open our laboratories for special experiments; and encourage such activities as sewing, cooking, map making, nature study.

3. *To extend experience through varied reading.* While courses in English and

American literature have ostensibly offered preparation for, or initiation into varied reading, too frequently the courses have specified materials which were far from the reading of the non-professional individual. Although our regular English courses at the experimental school attempt to deal with leisure reading as the body for discussion, additional opportunity for library browsing or for the following out of individual reading interests is provided as part of our leisure program. Pupils investigate political problems, become acquainted with, perhaps, French dramatists, or discover the richness of oriental living.

4. *To play individual games.* Certainly it is absurd to believe that the individual can look forward to a large participation in group games after he has left school. There is doubtlessly need that he know how to play when he cannot have contact with a team. A leisure program should offer opportunity for individual or small group games.

5. *To do creative, individual work.* The leisure program should offer opportunity to the child who desires to paint, draw, work with clay, write, carry on a hobby, or otherwise develop an individual interest.

6. *To carry on creative work with a congenial group.* Such interests as those in drama or dancing, require companionship. These should have recognition.

7. *To play group games.* No further comment need be made on this activity. It has its place but is only one item in a program.

8. *To complete necessary work.* Perhaps no more satisfying use of leisure can be made than in catching up on work which has been unfinished or which will profit by additional attention. Our leisure program takes recognition of this need. Recently our students commented on their free choice activities. A third spoke on the advantages of a "catching

up" period. Much as we who are adults value such opportunity, it is rare that a program makes provision for it. Too frequently the week-end time of the student is dictated by family needs. A period which is his own leisure, corresponding to the Saturday afternoon of his father, is a part of his program if he desires it.

9. *To develop new skills as recreation.* Boys learn to cook. Awkward girls learn to dance. Children who have no especial talent in art test themselves in painting or drawing or modeling. Since credits are not a part of the set-up, many undertake new activities which they would hesitate to undertake in regularly enrolled courses. Again the situation is comparable to out-of-school life. But unfortunately many of us who have recently been faced with leisure do not learn to paint or to draw or to sew, simply because we have been trained, not in self-expression, but in avoiding any expression which is not formally undertaken, and likely to achieve noticeable success.

10. *To carry on necessary tasks, not a part of the general program.* Book shelves need arranging, school exhibits need care, business meetings require attention, magazines and news sheets need to be printed. All of these add to the richness of school life. They should be given place, not reserved for the few who are unusually free because of either superior ability or habitual negligence or irresponsibility.

11. *To rest.* Some need more rest than do others. This is evident and needs no comment.

12. *To study social and political problems.* Although the social studies courses provide opportunity for formal study of social and political problems, there are always individuals especially alert to current problems, and to local conditions. These persons, often of unusual value to the community, profit from opportunity to make special studies of courts, welfare

institutions, or other public services. They also form intimate discussion groups for study of current questions.

13. *To be spectators.* Undoubtedly there is value in watching certain games in which one may not participate. Far too frequently the spectator has been the chief product of our leisure time programs. Nevertheless, a moderate experience in being spectator has its values.

To meet the foregoing aims we have set apart one period of an hour or an hour and a half each day, during which a varied program may be chosen. During this free choice period no regular courses are offered. Pupils and teachers work together on this freer program. On Monday, one may play or watch games of a considerable variety. These range from small wrestling or boxing matches, through intra-murals and inter-school contests of various kinds. Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday some fifty or sixty opportunities are offered: library reading; drama, industrial, fine and home arts work; music, creative writing; editing of newspaper and magazine; travel study; investigation of civic enterprises such as juvenile court, children's hospital, day nursery; school forum; camp cookery; museum making. Often these offerings are on several levels. There will be, for example, a junior and a senior dramatic work shop; cooking for seventh and eighth grade girls, with another section for those older. On the other hand, there are activities in which all ages of the two high schools are thrown together. Pupils are always free to arrange or organize new groups with teacher supervision, and may leave or initiate new activities every six weeks. On Thursday a period is given for school assemblies also, and here performances in drama and music often occur. Friday provides a period especially designed for odd jobs — teacher conferences, incidental games, making up of work.

Probably no element in the child's program receives more careful consideration than his development in the use of free choice time. Surprising even to those of us who planned most hopefully is the extent to which these varied offerings are developing stable and profitable interests. A group of twenty has, for example, maintained a writers' group for nearly two years, in spite of the fact that the members have continued to do full work in required classes. Library reading has developed a group of young people, each

following out a definite line of interest, investigating perhaps the literature of some foreign country, some special period, or subject. Art, mathematics, science, all have their groups working on independent undertakings. Slowly the number of those who cannot make wise choices is diminishing. The program has, we acknowledge, its defects, many of them serious; but we feel that it is an honest attempt to give pupils experience in that important function of living, intelligent and fruitful use of leisure.

NEW HOPE FOR THE DULL¹

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Difficulties in Technical Definition of the Dull Normal. The phrase "pupils of low ability" needs to be defined for every class. When we plan a unit of work for pupils of low ability it is important that we inventory the human material in that class by taking careful measurements of chronological age, reading ability, intelligence quotient, computation, and the like. In this way only will we have a definition of low ability that has meaning. For this reason there is here no attempt at formal definition of the phrase "dull normal." In general we have in mind those pupils who are just above the point in the scale below which they are commonly classified as mental defectives or subjects for special education. In schools where efforts are made to form homogeneous groups such pupils comprise the lowest ranking section.

If one were to try scientifically to differentiate the dull from the normal one might use any one of the following criteria: the social-economic, the pedagogical, the medical, and the psychological. No one of these criteria, however, is entirely satisfactory. For example, the social-economic criterion, being based wholly on economic and social adjustment, does not apply equally to all individuals under all circumstances; an individual who is normal in a simple rural community may be dull when transferred to the complex environment of a city. A good illustration perhaps is found in our experience during the World War when vast numbers of our soldiers were

classified as excessively dull by the psychological tests, when undoubtedly many were fairly well adjusted in the simple communities from which the selective draft took them.

Similarly, the pedagogical criterion which uses retardation as a measure is inadequate because children are retarded in school for many reasons, of which the lack of intelligence is but one. The medical criterion with its emphasis on the descriptions of clinical features is unsatisfactory because medical men, when they are confronted with a mental condition, usually attempt to apply principles which they have learned from a study of the physical.

The psychological classification under which pupils whose IQ's lie within some narrow range, for example 80 to 90, are designated as dull normal is too restrictive for the practical classroom teacher. Even in psychological reports the members of a given class do not stay nicely put within the limits of the range adopted.

The preceding considerations lead us to adopt the descriptive technique as the means of identifying the individual dull pupil or group of dull pupils. From the descriptions the reader can decide for himself the level of intelligence involved. Admittedly our method is close to the psychological criterion for the phrase "low ability" refers to the abilities employed in doing the tasks of the school in a satisfactory way, abilities such as are commonly measured by instruments called intelligence tests.

The pupils may be and often are intelligent in many other important tasks.

¹A paper read before the Commission on Unit Courses and Curriculum, Chicago, April 20, 1934.
—THE EDITOR.

The significant fact is that they sit in our classes and are promoted semester after semester, but do not appear to achieve a worthwhile degree of mastery of the subject matter taught.

Importance of the Problem. We may next turn to the question "Why is it important that we solve the problem of the dull pupil?" In the first place, it is important for the individual child. He has only one chance to learn how to live the abundant life. Life should be made meaningful to him by accepting him where he is and helping him to develop his power to see relations, his skill in choosing and organizing ideas, his habits of self-directed study, his ability to cooperate with others for the common good, and his sense of worthwhile values. The dull pupil as a human being with only one life to live, is entitled to an education which provides normal growth for him quite as much as his more able brother or sister. The ideals of the American secondary school—perhaps the greatest educational experiment ever undertaken—aim to provide for every citizen an introduction to a liberal education to the extent that he can achieve.

In the second place, the problem of the dull pupil is very closely tied up with the problem of crime. This is far too technical a subject for the writer to discuss, but public spirited citizens who are concerned with the rising tide of crime, or at any rate with the number of neurotics being sent to institutions for mental and nervous disorders, suggest that the secondary school is partly responsible so long as it fails to meet the needs of a vast number of dull pupils that are now unadjusted to the curriculum. Although the pupil may receive failing marks, it is reasonable to assume that he may have enough ability to realize that he is not getting anywhere. In brief, the situation may have in it all the bad effects of the fear of failure, which psychologists have

so clearly described. It is difficult for youth in general to adjust to the rapidly changing conditions of these turbulent times, and the conditions may turn out to be impossible for many who adjust slowly.

In the third place, we need to give some attention to this problem in order to maintain reasonably efficient instruction. Too often teachers waste the time of dull normals and decrease the value of courses for competent pupils. In practice we have a new philosophy of education which is concerned with the normal growth of every individual child and which strives to provide the most desirable setting for each personality. One of the practical outcomes of this philosophy is that the passing mark as concerns achievement in secondary schools has become a myth and the only criterion that remains especially significant in promotion from grade to grade is chronological age. As a result we have in the later grades of the secondary school, an enormous piling up of educational laggards. A competent teacher of world history, Latin, geometry, or a commercial subject will admit that he is not achieving very much with tenth and eleventh grade children who have reading skills typical of the average pupil in the fourth or fifth grade.

In the fourth place, it is important that we solve this problem in order that our existing institutions may be intelligently improved and surely preserved. If we continue to neglect the vast number of boys and girls between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one by keeping them three years in a curriculum that ignores their needs and then thrusting them for two or more years into an economic world that has already turned thumbs down on them as concerns employment, we will be setting the stage for a Hitler in America. It appears that the youth of Germany were swept off their feet by the Hitler program not because they were convinced

of its worth but because it offered the only hope to a youth that was being ignored. The rulers staged a world war and youth was expected to pay for it by sacrificing its educational opportunities.

The dull pupil is not a rare specimen in our schools. He constitutes a large percentage of all pupils. Dull pupils are the potential unskilled and semi-skilled workers of industry. It is important for every citizen that those who participate in labor-capital difficulties be educated to select able and unselfish leadership. We may have many of our public questions decided by votes that represent destructive prejudices and selfish "block" interests if we do not educate a goodly majority of our citizens to solve problems by thinking. They will never plan our country's future by their knowledge of its past, but they may shape its destiny by the ballots that they cast.

Fifth, teachers realize that we must give special attention to the problem of the dull pupil or the school will continue to lose in public confidence and support. Since the vote of one citizen counts as much as that of another, it behooves the school to be sure that these dull pupils leave the school with a feeling that their time has been well spent. Too often they leave school at an early age because they are unable to do the required work. When this happens they leave with the feeling that the school has somehow failed to benefit them, that in some way they have been denied something to which they are entitled. They see little value in those elements of the curriculum from which they have been able to gain little or nothing. The votes of these dissatisfied customers can count for much when the school seeks to enlarge its program or extend its services. How much better it would be if instead of being forced out by an inelastic curriculum they have been retained and helped by a curriculum modified and adjusted to

their needs. In these dark days, many communities, driven by fear and despair, grasp at extreme and unwise steps in economy. In the school year, 1933-34 the official record of a high school in Michigan showed that its superintendent and each of five teachers were receiving \$7.50 a week as salary. Men employed on public works in this same community were getting twice as much per week. Moreover, the record showed that this community was not using the money that was available for its schools.

Then, too, we are all familiar with schools that have tried to take music, fine arts, and physical education out of the curriculum. Chicago is perhaps the most glaring example. That some of these measures are extreme is evidenced by the fact that in many communities the so-called frills, recently taken out of the curriculum, are being put back, plus many new ones that school people haven't even advocated. They are surely coming back under the program of adult education, CCC, and junior college work financed by the federal government. It does not seem possible that the extreme measures which go so much farther than the financial conditions of the community justify could have been taken if the school had not been piling up dissatisfied customers, and it is a bit unreasonable to expect a dull person who has been unhappy in a school for twelve years to be thereafter an enthusiastic supporter.

Sixth, the investigational technique of solving the problem of the dull student is all the more important now that school people face the problem of modifying the curriculums. Conservative representatives of the public advise them to return to the fundamentals; that, in general, means the three R's in the elementary grades and Latin, mathematics, and other formal subjects in the high school. On the other hand, there are critics of public education who insist that the newer sub-

jects more nearly meet the needs of a changing world and that if the curriculum is to be reduced it would be better to trim out the things that should have been discarded long ago. How shall we decide what to keep in the curriculum, what to reject, and what to add when funds are inadequate?

I have no sympathy with those who advocate eliminating the fads and frills. What is a fad for one pupil may be the salvation of an unadjusted pupil of a wholly different type. Moreover, the fads and frills may turn out to be the avocational interests to save us in an immediate future characterized by excessive leisure time. But I deny that the solution for the dull pupil lies in sweeping out the older subjects and substituting less well-organized material. One can recognize the fact that the American secondary school has shamefully neglected the fine arts, health, and the general shop without naively seizing the newer subjects as the solution for the problem of the dull normal. There is no evidence that this group of pupils is achieving better in the newer subjects than they do in older. There are cities that are attempting to meet the needs of the slow pupil by assigning him two or three hours of industrial arts in his daily program, but I have not learned of any competent teacher of the general shop who believes that this practice offers a sound solution. One may note that the subject matter of both health and character training so far developed does not appear to have a direct appeal to pupils, either bright or dull; which suggests that the task of finding appropriate materials in the newer subjects may turn out to be far more difficult than it is in some of the older subjects. Sooner or later the newer subjects will probably be driven to a type of basic investigation of pupil responses that is advocated in the following pages.

Finally, we need to study the dull pupil

in order to advance our knowledge of applied educational psychology. Some of the most significant advances in education have come from studies of the sub-normal. For example the first psychological test in America was a modification of the Binet-Simon which grew out of a study of the mentally deficient. The dull pupil's mind is a slow motion picture available to the student of learning. In all probability the teaching of dull pupils is nothing more than supremely fine teaching. The road to better teaching is a more adequate psychology.

Whether dull pupils should be in school is an academic question. The fact is that they are here in our classes. We cannot get them out of the school and even if we could they could not find positions. Witness the fact that in Michigan there are this year many graduates back in high school for their thirteenth year of schooling. The national government is providing funds for classes at the junior college level in about 140 communities. To this number we must add most of the boys in the CCC camps. The CCC camps are almost certain to be permanent and we shall, it is to be hoped, create new educational institutions in those centers. In brief, we cannot even get rid of our laggards by graduation. The sensible thing to do is to design curricular materials that will fit their needs.

For these reasons, then, it is important for the dull pupil, for society, and for the school that we do all that we can to help solve the problem of the dull pupil. Our problem is to provide materials that the dull normal can do with greater profit and satisfaction, and to suggest a pedagogy that is more appropriate.

The Method. What can we do? The ultimate solution, of course, is to have a curriculum so rich and teachers so competent that the needs of individual pupils can be met. The only way to make a

worthwhile beginning is through classroom investigation. Three steps are proposed for those who desire to study some small phase of the general problem in a systematic way:

1. We must mobilize our experience and whatever we may have learned from reading the special psychology involved, and list in simple fashion some of the guides to learning that we will employ in the creation of the materials for the dull normal student.

2. We need to create a great variety of units that promise to contribute something to the solution of the problem.

3. We need to test each unit by classroom trial on the basis of a systematic record of pupil responses. This record will include, among other things, the experience and training of the teacher, a careful inventory of the human material represented by the children, how much the pupils know when they started the work, what they knew and what they were able to do when they completed the work, and whether or not they enjoyed the work. These are some of the facts that should be collected not solely on the basis of teacher opinion, valuable as that is, but by means of systematic record.

Summary of Techniques. The following techniques are used in the study.

1. Making a careful inventory of the human material in each class of dull pupils by securing significant measures of intelligence, reading ability, etc.

2. Selecting a body of subject matter for which there is a reasonable chance that it can be learned by dull pupils.

3. Writing the specific objectives of the unit, skills, items of information, and dispositions.

4. Constructing a test on the unit to cover the specific objectives for which measures can be designed.

5. Listing the specifications or guides to learning that need to be kept in mind in dealing with dull pupils.

6. Constructing the unit of subject matter according to the specifications.

7. Teaching the unit with the greatest skill and care possible, all the while keeping a systematic record of significant observations. For example, the unit on angles was taught by a considerable number of teachers in a large factory town, each teacher teaching the mimeographed manuscript without modification to a dull group, a middle group, and a superior group. In a few instances the same teacher has

taught the same unit to dull pupils of the seventh grade, the eighth grade, and the ninth grade. In like manner a few teachers have taught the unit vertically through the junior high school with middle groups or with superior groups. Included in the records were the time required to teach each unit, and the experience and training of each teacher.

8. Testing the pupils at the end of the unit.

9. Comparing and contrasting the mastery of a particular task as shown by groups varying either in ability, in grade classification, in time devoted to the unit, or in ability and training of the teacher.

10. Testing at intervals to measure the rate and extent of forgetting.

SELECTING THE DULL NORMAL

Illustration of the Techniques Used in Selection and Definition. We proceed now to present some of the more important measures of the human material in specific groups. These objective measures plus the opinions of teachers served to define dull normal groups in one of the studies¹ conducted by a group of Flint teachers under the supervision of Miss Nellie Loss.

Let us consider first a few significant measurements of a sample experimental group. Table I deals with such facts as intelligence, reading, etc., for 144 pupils classified as dull and enrolled in the seventh grade in the Flint, Michigan, schools. The table includes one section from each of four junior high schools. The classes range in size from 32 to 40.

The average intelligence of the whole group was 78.5 with a range from 58 to 107. The 40 pupils in School A range from 58 to 97 with an average of 75.4. The average score in reading for the whole group is the third month of the fifth school year with a range from 2.8 to 10+. Note that the average in reading of the 32 pupils in School C is 5.0 with a range from 3.3 to 6.2. The average score in arithmetic for the whole group is 5.4

¹Raleigh Schorling, "Report of the Committee on Individual Differences," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXVI (October, 1933) 350-65.

with a range from 2.8 to 7.9. The average chronological age for the whole group is 14.0. Since the facts concerning ages were collected in March this average suggests that the group in general is not more than one year retarded. Chronological age is the only criterion for promotion that remains especially significant. That promotion is independent of

ter and just before the pupils had completed the sixth grade. Only 3.5 per cent of 144 pupils are at the proper grade level in reading ability, and only 6.9 per cent are at the proper grade level in ability in arithmetic. About three-fourths of the children are two years or more retarded in reading and arithmetic. A considerable number, 4.2 per cent for reading

TABLE I
IMPORTANT MEASURES OF 144 DULL PUPILS IN THE SEVENTH GRADE

Measures	School A 40 pupils	School B 36 pupils	School C 32 pupils	School D 36 pupils	Entire Group 144 pupils
IQ (Stanford)					
Average	75.4	87.9	80.7	83.1	78.5
Range	58-97	72-107	67-93	67-101	58-107
Reading Ability (Stanford)					
Grade average	4.9	5.8	5.0	5.6	5.3
Range	2.8-6.7	3.4-7.4	3.3-6.2	3.4-10+	2.8-10+
Arithmetic Ability (Stanford)					
Grade Average	5.2	5.7	5.1	5.6	5.4
Range	2.8-7.9	3.1-7.6	2.8-7.1	3.3-7.8	2.8-7.9
Chronological Age					
Average	13-7	13-6	13-11	14-0	14-0
Range	12-2 to 17	11-6 to 16	11 to 16-9	12-5 to 16-5	11-6 to 17
Repeating					
Once	2	2	0	1	5
Twice	0	0	0	0	0
Sex					
Boys	20	19	17	22	78
Girls	20	17	15	14	66

achievement is suggested also by the next item in the table which shows that only five pupils are repeating the course and that no one is taking the seventh grade for the third time. The laggards, as defined a generation ago by Leonard Ayres in terms of chronological age have disappeared from many of our good schools. However, thoughtful school men know that the laggards are somewhere in the building, and we shall discover where in the next table.

Table II shows the per cent of pupils at each grade level as determined by the Stanford Achievement Test. The test was given near the close of the second semes-

ter and 6.9 per cent for arithmetic, are at the third-grade level. Finally, we note that 1.4 per cent of the pupils are at the second-grade level in reading and 1.4 per cent are at the same grade level in arithmetic. There is only one good reader in the whole group and he is about three years retarded in arithmetic. Thus we see that the laggards of the present-day school appear as those who are retarded in basic skills—reading and arithmetic.

The table suggests that the crux of the difficulty of teaching the dull pupil lies in the reading problem. This explains why he often has as much trouble get-

ting the meaning of a subject like history as he does in mathematics. How futile it is to try to teach a girl algebra and Caesar when actually she can't read as well as a good fourth-grade pupil.

A Second Sample. The same measures were used to select another set of classes, one in each building. It should be noted, however, that this group is

The records for individual pupils show that in the whole group of 143 pupils there were only 3 who had eighth-grade ability in reading and 6 who had seventh-grade ability, whereas 13 pupils were classified as sixth-grade readers, 71 as fifth, and 38 as fourth-grade readers, while 5 were at only the third-grade level. For six pupils we did not receive a reading score.

In a class of 39 pupils in School C, there was not a single pupil who read at the seventh-

TABLE II
PER CENT OF 144 DULL SEVENTH GRADE PUPILS AT VARIOUS GRADE
LEVELS IN FUNDAMENTAL SKILLS

GRADE LEVEL	PER CENT OF PUPILS AT PARTICULAR GRADE LEVEL IN	
	Reading Ability	Ability in Arithmetic
Second	1.4	1.4
Third	4.2	6.9
Fourth	29.9	20.8
Fifth	41.0	46.5
Sixth	18.7	16.7
Seventh	3.5	6.9
Eighth	0.0	0.0
Ninth	0.0	0.0
Tenth	0.7	0.0
No record	0.7	0.7

higher in general ability than the preceding group. The explanation probably is that this is a group which begins the work of the junior high school in the first semester, whereas the preceding table dealt with a mid-year group.

The important facts shown are:

1. In School A there was not a single pupil out of 36 who had an IQ of 100 on the basis of the Terman Test. The average for the whole group of 143 pupils is 88.8. The range was from 69 to 120. Although it is not shown in the table, the fact is that there were only 14 pupils (7 per cent) with IQ's above 100.

2. Here also we note that the chief difficulty undoubtedly is the reading problem. The reading ability of the whole group can be described as being approximately that of an average pupil in the middle of the fifth school year. In School D the range in reading is from the third month of the third school year to the seventh month of the eighth school year. Incidentally, let us note that there is a decided problem of individual differences in dealing with a group especially selected on the basis of low ability when there is a span of more than five years in reading ability.

grade level. In fact, there was only one who could be classified as a sixth-grade reader.

3. The number of pupils repeating the course is very low. Five pupils were taking the course for the second time and only two were taking it for the third time. In spite of the philosophy of education by which the chief factor of promotion appears to be chronological age there is a range as regards chronological age in the whole group from 11 years and 1 month to 16 years and 10 months.

4. The average achievement (35.1 problems) on an arithmetic test consisting of 100 simple (computation) problems is not much lower than the norm for seventh-grade pupils (39.8 given in the manual for the test. The explanation probably is that these pupils are in very good junior high schools, where special attention is given to classification, and where the teachers have had specific training for junior high school mathematics and have the advantages of competent supervision. Again we may observe that the problem of individual differences within a slow group may be a very difficult one by noting that the range on the 100 problem test is from 2 to 77. The most competent pupil in the group can produce in an hour more than 35 times as many correct answers as the slowest worker.

How many measures should a teacher use in selecting a class of dull pupils from a larger group? Obviously one might ask the same question with reference to homogeneous grouping. The answer depends on the kind of records that are available. In a school system where records are continuous and adequate a considerable number of measures may be used. For example Douglass and

7. Occupation or socio-economic status of parents.
8. Vocational choices and intentions.
9. Interest.
10. Attitudes toward school and different school subjects.
11. Physical abilities and defects, health and general vigor.
12. Study habits and skills.
13. Home conditions and surroundings.
14. Characteristics of personality, temperament, and disposition.

TABLE III
CERTAIN MEASURES OF 143 DULL PUPILS IN THE SEVENTH GRADE

Measure	School A 36 pupils	School B 29 pupils	School C 39 pupils	School D 40 pupils	Entire Group 143 pupils
IQ					
Average	85.1	94.3	86.7	89.1	88.8
Range	70-98	76-110	70-108	69-120	69-120
Test	Terman	Stan. and Terman	Stan. and Terman	Stan.	
Reading Ability					
Grade average	5.2	5.7	5.2	5.7	5.45
Range	3.6-7.0	3.8-7.8	4.1-6.4	3.3-8.7	3.3-8.7
Chronological Age					
Average	14-4	13-4	13-9	13-5	13-8
Range	11-9 to 16-5	12-4 to 15-7	11-1 to 16-0	12 to 16-10	11-1 to 16-10
Sex					
Boys	19	15	18	21	73
Girls	17	14	21	19	71
Repeating					
Once	2	2	—	1	5
Twice	—	2	—	—	2
Schorling-Clark-Potter 100-Problem Test					
Average	30.4	45.7	34.4	30.0	35.1
Range	2-75	4-63	9-77	12-71	2-77

Boardman¹ make the following suggestions:

Provisions for grouping should take into consideration the following:

1. Mental ages of pupils in a given class, section, or grade, and in the school as a whole.
2. Intelligence quotients of pupils (less than sixteen years of age).
3. Chronological age and extent of retardation or of acceleration.
4. Educational status as shown by scores on standard achievement tests.
5. Educational achievement in a semester or other given periods as shown by a good objective test prepared by the teacher.
6. Scores on prognostic or aptitude tests.

15. The relative ability or grade level in silent reading.

The list suggested by Douglass and Boardman must for the present be considered an ideal. Our failure to keep continuous and adequate records of pupil growth and progress is perhaps one of the weakest spots in American education. In most schools few records other than the name of the child, age, and school subjects and marks will be available to

¹Harl Douglass and Charles Boardman, *Supervision in Secondary Schools*, p. 395. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934.

teachers. Indeed, in a considerable number of classes in well-organized high schools the teacher on the opening day will know nothing of the new children that crowd into his classroom other than names and sex. For these reasons the techniques suggested by the writer are limited to the smallest number of measures by which a reasonably good job of

Even in cities where adequate records are available school people inexperienced in the task of homogeneous grouping should probably limit their early efforts to the simple plan here suggested.

In all probability more technical methods of selecting will be used as soon as schools keep adequate and continuous records. An illustration of a scientific

TABLE IV
PER CENT OF CORRECT RESPONSES BY QUESTIONS

Questions	First Test	Test One Year Later
1. (1)	81.3	74.4
(2)	91.0	90.6
(3)	95.1	92.3
(4)	83.3	70.1
2.	54.9	27.4
3.	83.3	79.5
4.	79.2	65.8
5. $\angle BAC$	72.9	45.3
$\angle A$	65.3	35.9
$\angle X$	75.0	44.4
6. <i>a</i>	77.1	70.1
<i>b</i>	77.1	78.6
<i>c</i>	61.8	46.2
<i>d</i>	52.1	45.3
7. <i>a</i>	90.3	79.5
<i>b</i>	80.6	84.6
<i>c</i>	72.2	53.8
<i>d</i>	58.3	50.4
8.	75.7	53.8
9. <i>x</i>	72.2	47.0
<i>y</i>	64.6	29.9
<i>z</i>	66.7	29.1
10.	78.5	51.3
Average	74.3	58.5

grouping can be done. Reading index and intelligence quotient are in general most helpful. These should be supplemented whenever possible by (1) opinion of intelligent and well-trained teachers, (2) previous school record if it involves the judgment of a number of competent teachers, and (3) an inventory of the basic skills especially useful in the given field in which pupils are grouped.

approach is provided in a study by Miller.¹ On the basis of an analysis of the items of information which follow, 38 pupils of the 196 entering the tenth grade of the Shaker Senior High School from the Shaker Junior High School in September, 1934, were selected by Miller as dull-normal; (1) data from the cumu-

¹Dorothy M. Miller, *Case and Group Studies of Dull Normals in a Senior High School*. Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Michigan, 1934.

lative record card; (2) data from the file folder; (3) data from results of a testing program administered the preceding April which included standard tests in achievement, intelligence, reading comprehension and rate, grammar, geometry prognosis, general science, and Latin prognosis; and values in attention, neatness, honesty, interest, initiative, ambition, persistence, reliability, and stability

these experimental groups. However, it seems more economical of time if in this report we consider supplementary data secured by teaching the unit on angles which was described in the report¹ for 1933.

Tests and Objectives. In the final pages of the unit on angles appears a test which calls for 23 responses. The test will suggest the specific objectives

TABLE V
GROWTH OF DULL PUPILS COMPARED WITH GROWTH OF BRILLIANT AND MEDIUM PUPILS

Measure	Class A (dull) 40 pupils	Class B (medium) 44 pupils	Class C (fast) 38 pupils	Class D (dull) 41 pupils	Class E (medium) 38 pupils	Class F (fast) 43 pupils
Average IQ	83.2	106.4	128.2	79.4	102.7	131.5
Average Score on						
Initial Test5	.3	2.7	.2	1.7	.7
Final Test	17.8	17.5	20.8	17.9	19.05	20.1
Average gain per pupil	17.3	17.2	18.1	17.7	17.3	19.4
Range on						
Initial Test	0-4	0-2	0-13	0-4	0-9	0-4
Final Test	0-23	11-23	16-23	9-23	6-23	14-23
Range of Gain	0-23	9-23	6-23	9-23	6-23	14-23

obtained from four teachers for each pupil through the use of the New York Rating Scale. The median IQ for the group of 38 was 92.3 with a range of 80-98; the median mental age, 14 years and 1 month, was 1 year and 7 months less than that of the chronological age, 15 years, 8 months. The median scores in all other traits measured by standard tests was below normal except that in general science, which was slightly above normal for the grade. Intensive case studies of each pupil were made the basis of special recommendations for remedial treatment.

Subject Matter. A number of new units, e.g., percentage, scale drawing, and improvement of accuracy in measurement have been prepared and are being used with experimental groups this year. Any one of these units would provide interesting and significant data from

that the teaching of the unit aims to achieve. The remainder of this report will be concerned with the question of how well dull children can master these 23 responses and the extent to which they are forgotten during periods of disuse. Let us consider both of these questions for the particular group of 144 dull pupils presented in earlier tables.

In Table IV we see the per cent of children responding correctly to each item of the test. Item 6(d) in the test is the hardest task but note that more than half the children made the correct response. The third part of the first question appears to be the easiest and more than 95 per cent of the pupils responded correctly. The average per cent of correct responses on all items for the whole

¹Raleigh Schorling, "Report of the Committee on Individual Differences," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXVI (October, 1933) 350-65.

group is 74.3 per cent. This means that approximately three out of four answers turned in were correct. Of the 3312 required answers more than 2500 were correct.

This table also presents the details as regards retention for individual items of the test. Note that the pupils taking the same test nearly a year later show a

pupils. These six sections are sample sections of the experimental groups in Flint for the present school year.

The preceding table presents clear evidence that dull pupils can learn to do tasks in mathematics to a high level of mastery. If the identifying data, as for example, the intelligence quotients, had been omitted it would have been a

TABLE VI
PER CENT OF PUPILS INDICATING CERTAIN RESPONSES TO THE UNIT ON ANGLES

RESPONSE	FLINT 144 pupils (slow)	DETROIT		
		37 pupils 9B(slow)	41 pupils 7A(slow)	29 pupils 7A(medium)
I like it very much	65.7	56.7	33.3	51.1
I like it much	7.0	13.5	29.7	24.0
I like it all right	17.4	8.1	15.0	9.6
I like parts of it	9.1	16.2	19.5	12.0
I don't like it	0.7	5.4	2.6	2.4
I hated it	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

mastery of nearly 60 per cent. They have dropped from a level of 74.3 per cent mastery to 58.5 per cent which is only a loss of about 20 per cent. Then, too, there are not many questions that one could ask a group of unselected children in the high school and secure 60 per cent of correct responses. For example, the simple task, "Find 25% of 80" has been given to a large number of unselected pupils in the ninth grade with only 57½ per cent correct responses. Note that this group of 144 dull pupils a year after the unit was taught shows a mastery even a little better than unselected ninth grade pupils respond to the question "Find 25% of 80." This suggests that the rate of forgetting of dull pupils when initial mastery has been driven very high is not especially rapid.

Dull Pupils Compared with Their More Competent Companions. Next let us compare the growth on the angle unit of 81 dull pupils with the progress made by 81 medium pupils and 81 brilliant

challenging exercise for the reader to identify which classes are dull and which are classes with more able students. The significant fact is that the two dull sections (A and D) gained 17.3 and 17.7 points, respectively, on the test; the two medium sections (B and E) gained 17.2 and 17.3 points respectively, and the two fast sections (C and F) gained 18.1 and 19.4 points respectively.

Pupil Appreciation of the Unit. It is our purpose to secure materials that are not only profitable to slow groups but also interesting enough to be studied by the dull pupils with satisfaction. The next table suggests the extent to which the unit on angles was enjoyed by the 144 pupils reported in the preceding tables and by 107 pupils in three Detroit sections. Pupils were asked to respond to a check list which appears in the accompanying table along with a summary of pupil responses.

The dull pupil usually is afraid of school tasks and the obvious need is to get him to do something at which he can

succeed. In this unit the material is organized so that each step is very small. He is led step by step and is able to measure his success step by step. This may explain why a considerable number of pupils seem to overcome their fear of the subject. It is the testimony of the teachers who taught this unit that not only can dull pupils learn to do these tasks but that they do them with a high degree of satisfaction.

The Outlook. As has been pointed out, the welfare of the individual pupils in this vast number who now move through the high schools to graduation, the continuity of our institutions, the stability of society, and the continued support of education, demand that this crucial problem be attacked in a systematic way. It is to be regretted that a comprehensive study of this basic problem was not undertaken in the days when

we had considerable sums for research in the budgets of city schools and universities. Since funds for research are rapidly disappearing and since the great foundations have to date not been concerned with this vital problem, the outlook in the immediate future is not hopeful. Nevertheless I cannot conceive of any problem in our public schools that is of greater importance to the welfare of society. Certainly one would have difficulty thinking of a problem that would yield more gratifying returns with a given amount of expenditure of energy and money. The evidence suggests that so-called dull pupils can learn tasks, even though the tasks be difficult and academic in character, with a high level of mastery and with satisfaction. We need by detailed research to create a curriculum in which this important group can develop in a normal way.

EXPERIMENTAL COLLEGE ENTRANCE UNITS¹

A COMMITTEE REPORT

I. INTRODUCTORY STATEMENTS

H. H. RYAN, Chairman of the Committee
University High School, Madison, Wisconsin

YOU who have been familiar with the work of the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula for the past five or six years know how its interests have shifted. Indeed the very name of the Commission—Unit Courses and Curricula—is suggestive of styles in curriculum making which were in vogue two decades ago. Today these styles have been superseded by styles of which the expression “curricular units” or “teaching units” is more truly representative.

The problem which was in the minds of those who set up the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula several years ago was doubtless one which grew out of inconvenient variations from school to school in amount of work covered during a semester. It was probably thought that a semester of ancient history should have a definite value—that is, a definite content, so that any pupil who was certified as having completed a semester of ancient history would have had about the same experience as another pupil with a similar certification, whether he lived in the city or at the crossroads. Thus it was hoped that one of the confusing variables in the administration of secondary education, particularly as secondary education was preparatory to higher education, might be eliminated.

In attacking this problem originally, the Commission first undertook the task

of orientation and set up a system of objectives of secondary education of which Health, Vocations, Community Living, and the Use of Leisure Time were the major divisions. Next it considered the question as to how much should be called a “unit.” At this point it was troubled by the persistently implied question “how much of what.” This dilemma led to several years of constructive work in the study of qualitative standards for the secondary school curriculum. Finally, having answered the preliminary questions “as to what end, and with what kind of material,” the Commission braced itself for the struggle with the main problem—that of quantitative standards.

With the first effort in respect to this newer question, it found itself blinking in the glare of the disconcerting fact that the very difficulty which had made the organization of the Commission desirable in the first place had now become so aggravated as to defy remedy. The tremendous increase in the enrollment of the secondary school, bringing in literally millions of boys and girls of lesser ability and less keen intellectual interests, had set up a student body whose heterogeneous composition stultified any attempt at uniformity of achievement. There were but two possible courses of action: one was to declare the problem insoluble and retire from the field; the other was to proceed by indirection. The latter alternative has been the Commission’s course. Various

¹The reports presented herewith were made at the time of the Annual Meeting at Chicago, April, 1934. They constitute a unified set and were sponsored by the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula.—THE EDITOR.

sub-committees are now earnestly at work seeking to solve the problem in new ways.

Three years ago, as one means to the end sought, it was proposed that the Commission should promote a *curriculum experiment* in which twenty to forty North Central secondary schools should set up a new curriculum and carry it out for a period of years under such controlled conditions as would throw some light upon the value of these new experiences and theories. This proposal was approved, this committee was formed, and the funds were provided for its use.

During the first year of work the committee set up a skeleton for the curriculum and explored the attitude of some of the colleges toward the idea. In the meantime a committee of the Progressive Education Association under the leadership of Mr. Wilford Aikin was working toward a similar purpose and with greater success. When the paths of these two committees crossed, your committee became convinced that it could progress more rapidly towards its objectives by giving its assistance to the Progressive Education Association enterprise. Since that time it has followed that course; the report of your committee therefore takes the form of a report of its activities in support of the experiment which Mr. Aikin's committee is directing. In following the cooperative plan mentioned the committee realizes that it may never be able to point to objective evidence of achievement for which it should have the credit. However it plans to do no worrying on that score unless directed to do so by the Commission or the Association. With the exception of the chairman, the personnel turnover of this committee has been about 100% per annum. At the outset it had the advice and counsel of Professor Harl Douglass and Professor Matthew Willing. This year the com-

mittee has been composed of the principals or other representatives of the eleven experimental schools located in North Central Association territory. On December 7 and 8, 1933, ten of these eleven representatives met at the Stevens Hotel in Chicago. We had the pleasure of joining in conference with Mr. French's committee on Functional Units of Instruction, and Mr. Willett's committee on Survey and Publication of Trend in Curriculum Revision. We also had present for the discussion Chairman Deam and Professor Webb of the North Central Association Commission, and Dean Johnston and Mr. Aikin of the Directing Committee. It seemed to be the consensus of opinion that this conference gave an impetus to the work in the several experimental schools which could have been supplied only by some such a pooling of experience and some such a submission of one's own plans to the scrutiny of others in like situations. The report of this meeting has been filed with the chairman, including a summary prepared by Professor Lindquist for his teachers, and a list of considerations proposed by Dean Johnston.

Certain impressions which the chairman received at this conference, as well as the various conferences held under the direction of Mr. Aikin, may be of interest to this audience. For example, if you have been under the impression that the static condition of the high school curriculum for the past thirty years has been chargeable entirely to the restraining influence of college entrance requirements, you will be startled by the scarcity of radical departures among these experimental curricula. As Miss Flora Cook put it: "I found that our teachers had come to love their chains." The experimenters show a tendency to venture out a few inches into the chill darkness of pedagogical Little America, and then scurry back to the warmth and

brilliance and sociability of traditional things. The most venturesome of the lot proceeds much as does the inhabitant of the western plains when he tries in the midst of a sandstorm to get out to the barn; that is, with one end of a stout rope tied about his waist and the other securely nailed to the sill of the kitchen door. May I say to you that these explorers will need all the encouragement which you as individuals and as an association can give them, if they are to set up programs different enough from what we have been doing to justify the title "experiment," and to afford conclusive results.

A second and somewhat unexpected feature of the program is the eager willingness of parents to take part in such an experiment. No member of this committee has reported any handicap from the supposed conservatism of our constituency. The willingness of parents to cooperate here is very helpful, but it is somewhat disturbing in that it indicates very positively that parents feel the need of unmistakable reformation in the secondary school curriculum.

A third impression is that among members of your committee there is a profound interest in the type of thing which Mr. French's committee is doing. All seem to feel that we have been too long satisfied with a program of teaching organized subject matter and with leaving with the pupil the responsibility for making a going concern out of his education. The plan of casting educational bread upon the waters is distinctly out of harmony with the now evident necessity for a direct procedure; we have come to the point where we must set up a bakery and start making deliveries to customers.

In the several curricular plans proposed there is a renewed emphasis upon the social studies, coupled with what seems to me a very plausible reservation

to the effect that the critical nature of our social problems must not blind us to two important considerations. The first of these is that the imperative needs of our social problems in no way causes the disappearance of our other problems and that the other objectives of secondary education must be adequately served, even now. The second consideration is this: if we were more certain as to what we should teach high school boys and girls about the solution of social problems, we could more easily justify devoting the lion's share of pupils' time to such things; but until a workable program has been set up, the secondary school can do little for the adolescent in that direction, except make him thoroughly alive to the importance of the problem and make him thoroughly conversant with the present situation as one of the milestones in the journey from social chaos to what we hope may some day mean efficient social organization. It is probably true that science could well adjourn its research for a period of a hundred years if thereby it could free time and energy and thought for the solution of social problems; but these desperately needed solutions will not come from the high school classes in social studies. The social studies which we teach in high school should be designed for the consumer rather than the producer, and should be given space and time accordingly in the curriculum.

You will be interested, I think, in certain highlights from the reports which representatives of our North Central experimental schools gave in this December conference.

The Tulsa experiment reported by Mr. French begins with the seventh grade instead of the tenth and enrolls pupils from the upper 25 per cent of all pupils entering the seventh grade. There has been careful selection of teachers to handle these pupils. It is the policy to

reduce the number of personalities to which a pupil must respond; for example, one teacher handles English and social science, and the other handles science and mathematics. The pupils are with each teacher two consecutive periods. The principle of functionality is kept prominently in mind. For example, instead of studying one phase of life insurance in arithmetic, another in social studies, and another in home economics, the whole topic is introduced under some such topic as "Why Buy Life Insurance?" In the ensuing discussion all the phases of life insurance, which are important from the standpoint of the customer, are brought out.

Miss Cooke, reporting for the Francis Parker School, indicated that social science and English are to be the required core. Such mathematics as is being taught is of a general nature. Art and music and shop work are also required subjects. A very interesting comment made by Miss Cooke was to the effect that the enthusiasm displayed in planning and supervising the pupils' leisure time activities had the effect of eliminating leisure time altogether for both pupils and teachers. An emphasis upon the social significance of things done in the school is illustrated by a simple shop project. A number of pupils went to about forty charitable institutions for the purpose of ascertaining what the needs of those institutions were which might be met by things made in the school shop. These articles were made and distributed according to this inventory.

Mr. Gaffney described a core of English and social science in use at New Trier High School. Ancient, medieval, and modern history up to 1900, will be the social science work in the ninth and tenth grades. In the eleventh grade, American history and civics will be brought up to the same date. In the

senior year the pupils will devote themselves to current problems. Mathematics is elective. The pupils have taken to the course with the greatest of enthusiasm and do more work with less complaint than do the other pupils.

Five Denver high schools are carrying one experimental group each. There is no attempt at uniformity from school to school. Each is making its own experiment. It is rather interesting that in one school the social science core began with the study of present day Germany, in the attempt to find a pattern of the basic social processes which will be more or less common to all societies studied. Pupils of these schools when asked about their own reaction to the experiments, seemed to place a high value upon the privilege of choosing the subjects which they wish to take. They commented however upon the difficulty which they had in adjusting themselves to this new liberty. The assignments were of course general in this new course, and the pupils found this arrangement rather confusing. They were accustomed to definite tasks of work and were puzzled by the problem approach and the array of general reference material.

Mr. Cushman reported that the pupils are marked in their work, not by letter grades, but by a plan of self-evaluation. He is not sure that this is an improvement over the old plan.

Mr. Patin of Shaker High School reported that all courses are beginning with a modern challenging topic, and that the assimilative material which the pupils use is that which is drawn in by the struggle to solve the problems involved. The school is making progress in the coordination of materials from several subject fields; for example, while the class in social science was studying the Cuban revolution and its relation to the Latin American policy of the United States, the English department was

studying leadership, the critical issue in Cuba, through biographies of modern leaders as well as those of an earlier day.

Mr. Aikin reported the interesting four-part junior high school program at Burroughs, consisting of the unified course, the technique period, the creative period, and the physical education work. In the senior high school there are six broad fields of learning—the arts, the special studies, science and mathematics, vocation, language, physical education. The members of the audience are no doubt familiar with the reports which have come from time to time from John Burroughs' school, of interesting enterprises in coordinating various fields of study.

The death, some two months ago, of Principal Cook of Roosevelt High School of Des Moines has bereft this committee as well as Mr. Cook's immediate constituency. Mr. Cook attended the December meeting and presented an enthusiastic report. Two constants are the core of the Roosevelt experiment—English and social science. In addition there are two hours of elective work. Mr. Cook reported that the energy displayed by the individual pupils in the work of this program was in direct proportion to the variety and strength of their personal interests, and that a large part of the guidance program had taken the form of arousing interests in apathetic youngsters.

Mr. Smith of North Shore Country Day School was unable to attend. Somewhat later however he has reported to Mr. Aikin a combination of the United States history class in the senior year with an English literature class. This school also has a core curriculum in social science in the freshman and sophomore classes.

At Wisconsin High School the guiding principle is that of functionality. There are four constants which make up the core curriculum and fill approximately

two-thirds of the day. These constants are: Health, Leisure Time, Community Living, and Vocations; thus we follow the pattern worked out some years ago for the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula of the North Central Association. At the outset the pupils were dissatisfied because of general assignments and because as they put it "their work never seemed to be done." The making of this curriculum has been a heavy burden since it must be constructed *de novo* and hence has no momentum whatever. About twenty of the thirty teachers have been used in some capacity in carrying out the work of the several courses that have been set up.

Mr. Lindquist of Ohio State University High School, emphasized the necessity of keeping in mind not only the needs of the future college student but those of the pupil who is not going to college. At that school pupils are exposed to each of five areas for a period of six years. These areas are science and mathematics, social science, art, language and literature, health and physical education. Emphasis is laid on seven functions of group living—speech and record keeping, production of goods, exchange of goods, government, transportation, recreation, and health. The treatment of these topics is chronological, wherever that approach will apply.

The novel reorganization of the secondary and higher periods of education at the University of Chicago has no doubt brought to your attention the general plan of work at the University High School. One of the most interesting achievements is the reduction of the number of the weekly periods in a given subject, such as mathematics, from five to four hours. By this means it has been possible to bring the extracurricular program into the daily schedule, organize it and coordinate it with the other activities of the school. This plan bids fair to

make it possible to realize the full educational value of this type of experience.

In conclusion, let me remind you that the opportunity represented by this experiment as originally planned and now being carried on by the Progressive Education Association is the thing for which the secondary school has been crying for many years. The door is now open for experimentation, for a deviation from the beaten track. It calls for cooperative, organized deviation lasting over a definite period of time. The typical high school principal is continually occupied and worried by the routine of his managerial duties. As a consequence, the history of secondary experimentation in the past shows that pioneering has been very infrequent and the pioneer enterprises themselves have generally been short-lived. But here are at least twenty-eight

schools which have gotten into this thing now and must go on for eight years. Those of the twenty-eight that are located in the territory of the North Central Association have been aided during the past year by the work of this committee. The association should make it possible to continue this sort of help.

I am confident that there will be at least one major outcome of this experiment—that is, the demonstration, for the benefit of the colleges, that it is possible for the secondary school to make radical modifications in its curriculum without spoiling the college student. It is to be hoped that there will emerge also a number of definite curricula whose superior value is demonstrated during the period of the experiment. It is this latter outcome in which the members of this committee are most vitally interested.

II. THE EXPERIMENT AS DIRECTED BY THE PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION COMMITTEE

WILFORD F. AIKIN

John Burroughs School, Clayton, Missouri

AT THE Progressive Education Association Conferences in 1929 and in 1930, I was asked to lead discussion groups on the problem of progressive secondary education. The progressive elementary school had found its place and was doing its work. The influence of the elementary school was making itself felt in the secondary school. At the same time rapid changes were going on in the colleges. The time seemed ripe for advance in the field of secondary education. But the secondary school was not at liberty to study its own work experimentally and freely without the consent and cooperation of the colleges. Some of us believed that the colleges were ready to join in an attempt to create conditions which would make possible the development of a new and better type of secondary education. It was clear that general annual conferences without organization and

plan were futile. Therefore, the discussion group of 1930 recommended to the Board of Directors of the Progressive Education Association the establishing of a Commission on the Relation of School and College for the purpose of bringing the two together in a constructive effort to improve the secondary school.

As you know, the plan provided that a small group of strong schools with vision and leadership should be given opportunity, free from restraints and college requirements, to study experimentally the curriculum, the organization, and the procedure of the secondary school. It provided, further, for a Directing Committee consisting of school and college representatives which would take the general responsibility for the supervision of the study throughout the eight years of its existence.

More than 250 American colleges and universities gave official approval of the plan and assurance of cooperation. Included in the list were leading representatives of all types of institutions of higher learning. We also have the cooperation of large universities, both State supported and privately endowed; many of the strong small colleges; women's colleges including all but one of the older Eastern colleges for women; and many of the men's colleges. All sections of the United States are well represented.

It is obviously necessary that the number of secondary schools included in the study should be limited and that they should be those especially well qualified to lead in the improvement of the work of the secondary school. For this purpose approximately 250 schools were suggested by educational leaders in all parts of the United States. From this list the following schools were selected for the experiment.

High School, Altoona, Pa.
 The Baldwin School, Bryn Mawr, Pa.
 Beaver Country Day School, Chestnut Hill, Mass.
 Bronxville High School, Bronxville, N.Y.
 Cheltenham Township High School, Elkins Park, Pa.
 Central High School, Tulsa, Okla.
 Chicago University High School, Chicago, Ill.
 Dalton School, New York City
 Denver High Schools, Denver, Colo.
 Fieldston School, New York City
 Francis Parker School, Chicago, Ill.
 Friends' Central School, Overbrook, Pa.
 Germantown Friends School, Philadelphia, Pa.
 George School, George School, Pa.
 Horace Mann School for Girls, New York City
 John Burroughs School, Saint Louis County, Mo.
 Lincoln School, New York City
 Milton Academy, Milton, Mass.
 New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Ill.
 North Shore Country Day School, Winnetka, Ill.
 Ohio State University Demonstration School, Columbus, Ohio
 Pelham Memorial High School, Pelham, N.Y.
 Radnor Township High School, Wayne, Pa.

Roosevelt High School, Des Moines, Iowa
 Shaker High School, Shaker Heights, Ohio
 Tower Hill School, Wilmington, Del.
 Winsor School, Boston, Mass.
 Wisconsin High School, Madison, Wis.

The committee sought to make the list truly representative of the whole range of American secondary education, and it will be observed that many different types of schools have been selected. There are both large and small public high schools. There are private schools of the "progressive" country-day type, co-educational schools, boarding schools for girls, boarding schools for boys. Eleven schools are located in North Central Association territory.

Before accepting any school the directing committee required its officers to submit plans for curriculum revision. Of the proposed changes the following indications can be given: In most instances the social studies, science, literature, and the arts were moved into the foreground of the picture with substantial enrichment of factual material. In a number of cases a core curriculum was established centering in some one general field of knowledge, usually the social studies, with which the work in other fields is being integrated.

In practically all the plans there is increased correlation and interweaving of subjects: special encouragement of independent self-directed study; enhanced opportunity for creative expression through writing, dramatics, the graphic and plastic arts, music; and thorough participation in school and community affairs and greatly augmented attention to individual educational guidance.

The schools inaugurated their new work in September 1933, beginning with the class which will enter college three years later in September 1936. The schools are keeping a full and complete record of each student's achievements and development so that both school and

college may act more intelligently when the change from school to college takes place.

The period over which the experiment is to run is eight years. During that time there will be frequent conferences among the schools themselves and they will have the guidance and counsel of the directing committee throughout the entire period. Under the supervision of this committee the schools and colleges will be brought close together for a study and guidance of each student so that his school and college career may have unity, coherence and pattern.

What results are hoped for? The following:

It is hoped that the overemphasis which is now placed upon the mere act of getting into college will be removed and that the unity of the whole educational process will take its proper place in the student's consciousness and in the aim of both school and college.

Through the changes they are now free to make, the cooperating schools hope to become more effective in helping young people to develop the insight, the powers, and the self-direction necessary for resourceful and constructive living. They wish to work toward a type of secondary education which will be flexible, responsive to changing needs, and clearly based upon an understanding of young people and their requirements as well as an understanding of the qualities needed in adult life.

The schools are trying to develop students who regard education as an enduring quest for meanings rather than credit accumulation; who desire to investigate, to follow the leadings of a subject, to explore new fields of thought; who know how to budget time, to read well, to use sources of knowledge effectively; and who are experienced in fulfilling obligations which come with membership in the school or college community.

III. THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE EXPERIMENT—SOME REPRESENTATIVE PROCEDURES

A. PRACTICAL LIMITATIONS OF THE EXPERIMENT

J. E. STONECIPHER

Theodore Roosevelt High School, Des Moines, Iowa

EXPERIMENTATION on an extensive scale during depression times requires more than ordinary management and care to avoid excessive costs and public disapproval. The experimental curriculum development in the Theodore Roosevelt High School of Des Moines has been planned on a more modest scale than its directors wished for. It has, however, been kept within the range of lay criticism in both expenditures and in avoiding extreme departure from the accepted curriculum. The conservatism of this approach may easily be more apparent than real, and it seems necessary in a normal public school situation.

Certain definite limitations were faced

in the organization of the experiment and were reluctantly accepted, although they made the achievement of the desired experimentation quite difficult. The greatest value to the schools of Des Moines will follow if the experiment is carried on in such manner that it may be adapted and used, in whole or in part, by the general curriculums in the schools of the city. Throughout the planning of the experiment the practical requirements of a difficult school situation have been taken into account in the administrative set-up. It was deemed necessary to set up the experiment under the following limitations:

1. The total amount of teacher direc-

tion and supervision for each pupil is limited to four periods of 65 minutes each per day. A home room period of 15 minutes per day under the direction of the teachers responsible for the core curriculum followed by the experimental group and one period per week of physical education are available in addition. This allocation of time insures that a similar program might be adopted for all or a large number of pupils, since it is the normal allotment of time in the high schools of the city.

2. The course is planned to follow upon and be articulated with the curriculum of the Des Moines junior high schools.

3. It is highly desirable that the experimental course hold the confidence of the patrons of the school and to assure them that there can be little possibility of their children losing ground in their progress toward graduation or college entrance. Partly for this reason, it was decided to limit the experimental curriculum to ten periods per week, or half the pupils' school load, exclusive of physical education. The content of the course is planned to cover enough of the same area of subject matter to justify school authorities in certifying credit as equivalent to the regularly available courses of the Des Moines schools. The pupil who finds it necessary to transfer from the experimental curriculum will not be penalized by being out of adjustment, but will rather be enriched and stimulated by his partial experience. Our required core curriculum has not followed the time schedule or the emphasis of the usual world history course, but it does deal with the history of civilization in the tenth grade and offers thorough justification for certifying a credit in world history to another school.

4. It was originally planned that the teachers working with the experimental groups should not be released from other

duties. I feel that this decision has been the most serious mistake made in the planning of the experiment. Adequate planning was impossible without great sacrifice on the part of the teachers. Consultation time was difficult to arrange. It has almost been impossible to make adequate records of the materials and practices of the group. As a result, we have much less helpful material to use in initiating the course with a second group next September than should be available. This condition has been rectified by releasing each of the teachers directing the experimental groups from one-fifth of her teaching load and by providing clerical assistance for mimeographing and typing materials and records.

5. The course is planned to follow upon the regular junior high school curriculum in Des Moines. Thirty-six pupils entered the experimental groups having studied Ancient and Medieval history in the ninth grade. Forty-one entered without the ninth grade course. This situation required different courses of study for the first semester and constituted a further limitation upon the time which could be given to planning for and directing the groups in their work.

Pupils were admitted to the experimental group under the following conditions:

1. Their plans for college must not include a college which refuses to accept graduates from the experimental curriculum.

2. They should agree to continue with the group for three years.

3. No one should be accepted whose achievement and effort in junior high school does not offer evidence of ability to do average or better work in high school.

4. The written consent of parents is required.

5. Parents should agree to attend meetings to be held at least twice during the year for the purpose of discussing the plans and progress of the experiment.

This selection resulted in the enrollment of two somewhat selected classes

which now enroll 36 and 39 pupils respectively. They are not, however, markedly superior groups and probably represent less variation from the normal than a number of the experimental classes in other schools. It is quite definitely indicated at the present time, that some individuals of the groups are not adapted to the type of work done in the class and would not, if recommendation were given at the present time, be approved as able to carry on higher education with profit. We have had to face the issue and decide whether or not the course is entirely college preparatory and should have weeded out of it those not qualified for carrying out their declared intention of entering college. We have decided that the curriculum, to be of greatest value, should be developmental and challenging to pupils of average ability and that we shall permit those to remain who may not be recommended for college. That is, we do not feel that permitting pupils to complete the course guarantees recommendation for college entrance and entrance to college without examination. The groups work under the handicap of a few who are less vitally interested than the majority. This is, however, a normal civic life situation and has some justification on that basis.

All pupils in the experiment are required to spend ten periods per week through the three years of the course in working within a core curriculum. This core curriculum calls for the organization of material in relatively large units involving a rather extensive study and activity bearing upon the central idea of the unit. A large amount of freedom is possible for the individual pupil or class within the confines of the unit. The required course as now planned, calls for:

1. A humanities core involving social studies and related literature, music, art, and science. This core is to utilize 10 periods per week in grades 10 and 11,

five periods per week in grade 12B, and $7\frac{1}{2}$ periods per week in grade 12A. As a part of this core curriculum, definite provision is made for English techniques needed for effective outlining, note-taking, summarizing, report-making, and group discussion, together with specific attention to reading skills.

2. A practical problems portion of the core curriculum was originally planned for $2\frac{1}{2}$ periods per week through grades 11B, 11A, and 12B. It is now planned, for administrative reasons, to concentrate this course in two 9 week courses of five days per week in grade 12B and one 9 week course in 12A. Three centers of interest are planned, each calling for the cooperation of teachers and experts in the specific fields indicated. Housing and home managing will deal with problems connected with buying and business management and with food, clothing, and shelter from a boy's viewpoint as well as a girl's. This first center of interest will, if present plans mature, include a study of the problems involved in the selection or building of a home, the economic problems involved in the selection of the site of this home, the purchasing of its furnishings, its equipment such as plumbing and electrical equipment, and the development and beautification of the grounds. Specialists in the industrial arts and landscaping are to be called upon to direct this study. A second center of interest required of all will include a study of the conservation of human energy and health, the physiology and hygiene of work habits, rest, and vitality, and the problems of the relationships of people living together in a home under present day conditions. This center will probably be directed by an expert from the home economics department. A third center of interest will call for instruction in the business aspects of everyday life. It is intended to include some of the fundamentals of

business law as used in transactions common to many. It will include information regarding insurance, the handling of estates, the legal aspects of contracts, and husband and wife responsibilities in making and carrying out contractual agreements affecting both. Some attention should be given to instruction in budget making, simple record keeping, filing, practical thrift, and business correspondence. A specialist in the commercial and business field will be drawn into the experiment for this purpose.

Electives may be chosen from the offerings of the school to meet individual or vocational interests to the extent of ten periods per week for three years. These electives may be chosen without regard to college entrance requirements. In order to avoid too much scattering of electives, it is required that at least 4 of the 6 elective units shall be chosen from two lines of major interest or two departments, these majors to be carried for at least 2 years each. It is recommended that at least one of these majors be from an academic group or department.

The two groups were organized into those who had studied ancient history and those who had not. An English teacher and a social studies teacher worked together, each taking primary responsibility for one group. The groups were scheduled in two consecutive periods on either side of a home room period and adjacent to the lunch period. The two guiding teachers serve also as home room teachers. They may, by mutual agreement, keep the same group at work with the same teacher for two hours and 25 minutes or longer if advisable and for as many consecutive days as needed.

Both groups spent the first two weeks or more studying the philosophy of history and historical methods and upon the study of archaeology to see why it has become such a gripping driving force in

the lives of many men and women. A part of this study involved instruction and practice in library usage, note taking, reading techniques, and techniques used in making oral or written reports.

One group then took up a study of world history enriched by a study of correlated art and literature connected with it, or a cultural epoch type of curriculum. The group which had studied ancient history took up a study of the Hittite civilization and developed extensive units in the study of the life, culture and history of China and India, which may be classified as a longitudinal unit type of curriculum.

The groups were brought together at the beginning of the second semester in a study of the Renaissance and the modern history period with much emphasis upon the cultural background for our present. Much of the recent history will be considered in grade eleven in connection with the study of American life and times as a nation in a world neighborhood. We shall probably make our approach more definitely through a functional study of contemporary problems of which the pupils are now acutely conscious.

Among the most perplexing of the problems we have met is that of evaluation of individual progress and reports to parents of progress or lack of it. A report comprising items upon which the pupil is rated X, Y, or Z was sent to the parents for their reactions. We are this week sending a different type of report as a second trial, involving a smaller number of items about which each teacher has written short explanatory comments concerning the progress or developed power of the pupil. Our scheme of records and reports is still in a most experimental stage. The methods tried are beyond the possibility of use in regular classes because of the time involved.

The assembling of reading and illustrative materials has been very difficult. The public library has been most generous of time, interest, and service. Many pupils have ransacked rather extensive home libraries. City visitors and much traveled citizens have talked with the groups and have permitted the study of their curios and museum pieces.

The reactions of parents and pupils have been varied. Many are very enthusiastic. One family refused to move to another city, stating definitely that their son was so vitally interested in this particular project that they were unwilling to sacrifice his opportunity. Others have publicly praised the purposes and aims of the course. A few are indifferent and two have been advised to remove their children from the groups. No one, to date, has sought removal from the classes.

We feel quite definitely that the experiment is a step in the right direction. At its worst or most conservative interpretation it represents a three-year core grouped about social studies in the broadest sense, with integrated subject matter drawn from varied fields of human activity. At its best it offers opportunity for great freedom in building a vital curriculum based upon the real interests of the pupils in present day living, with marked provision for individual differences and aptitudes. There is freedom within our set-up, for half of the child's program is to be organized in as broadly functional a course as can be desired. We know that our present attempt is not so organized, but we are winning our way through our own stereotypes and expect to have something quite different in the future.

B. AN EXPERIMENT IN A PRIVATE SCHOOL

FLORA J. COOKE

Principal of Francis W. Parker School, Chicago

THE present opportunity to free Secondary Education from inherited cramping restrictions is so great that in spite of real dangers any school which joins in an experiment seeking to effect this end should be encouraged to set up its own machinery in the light of its Educational Philosophy.

Each school's method and procedure should therefore differ in detail from every other but certain objectives common to progressive schools should largely prevail.

What I shall say in the next five minutes will review briefly the Francis W. Parker faculty's aims and responsibilities in *all* the high school curricula as well as in the program for any experimental group.

We of that Faculty believe certain objectives relating to experimental courses are common to most of the schools be-

longing to this Association—certainly to those with a social Philosophy of Education centered upon individual growth: These are

1. All should endeavor to promote individual health of body and mind.
2. All should provide counselors; wise and understanding guidance is a vital factor in the success of any experiment.
3. All should recognize that a large measure of freedom and self-direction is essential to the release of power in youth.
4. All should recognize the fact that the schools must share with the home the obligation of making young people realise that life imposes responsibilities and duties upon everyone of them for the common good; while the school and home, in their turn, are obligated to conserve the rights and privileges of each individual and to see that the aptitudes and gifts of each are developed and used.
5. Finally all should strive to keep alive for each pupil his love of learning, his appreciation of beauty, his creativeness, his desire for perfection in some chosen field of study and service,

yes, and some chance for expression for individual longings—for those aspirations of the soul so characteristic of youth.

We hear much today about educating for a new *Social Order*. I for one wish to register my judgment that while we as Educationalists are not in a position at present to indoctrinate youth for any particular New Order of Society—whatever the trends of this age may be—we are obligated to help our pupils to observe concretely from as many angles as possible what is going on in their city, their nation, and in the world.

We need to bulwark their experience with a store of concrete knowledge concerning those forces of civilization which have always benefited mankind and help them to understand those forces which have always led to decay and ruin and which are forces rampant today: selfishness, greed, prejudice and war.

We need to help young people to form the habit of working cooperatively with their fellows upon interesting enterprises which have constructive social issue.

It seems to me the best way to prepare young people for tomorrow is to have them live in a rich and stimulating environment in which they find incentives to inspire them to attack their immediate problems with enthusiasm, resourcefulness and initiative, with the spirit of hard, persistent effort and with the growing satisfaction which successful effort always brings.

We need, on the one hand, to avoid the dangers of a too narrow curriculum and, on the other, of a too superficial, soft, and scrappy surface education.

A sin to which it seems to me progressive schools are particularly liable is the neglect of the basic educational techniques with which civilization does its work. These do not come by nature. A thorough mastery can only come through practice in overcoming obstacles to desired ends; in other words, through

use. It comes best under incentives that seem worthwhile to the student himself in his widening experience from grade to grade. I believe that individual drill and corrective or remedial attention should be given pupils, according to need, throughout the grades. Without the equipment of adequate skills in the educational tools with which civilization of today does its work, the individual is lost in this technical world.

Specifically the following is what the Francis W. Parker School has been able to do in this year of curtailed opportunity.

It chose fifteen ninth grade pupils and eight ninth grade teachers to cooperate in a program of experimentation. Some of these pupils had been in the school from the kindergarten; some were new; a few were chosen because they had ability but were not working to full capacity. But all of those selected had adequate ability to do good college work and all who were invited, with the exception of a few new ones, were eager to join the group.

The major content studies for all were the same and involved work in five subject matter fields: Social Science, General Science, English, Foreign Language, and Mathematics. Teachers in Music, Art and Shop were freed for certain periods each week to give expert help to pupils and to enrich their experience.

In addition these pupils shared with all the high school in the usual school opportunities for the expression of individual and group interests in the Arts, Shops, Gymnasium, School Assembly and Playground and they had also the privilege of voluntary membership in the various Student-initiated and directed Activities of the school.

The teachers of the group met often for conferences at first and then for brief periods about once a week to check up on the pupil's progress and to suggest

changes or needs for cooperative work. The teachers, however, in spite of their experience and knowledge of the situation failed to realize that they were expecting or at least accepting too much individual effort. The pupils under the spur of their enthusiasm over-worked and had even less leisure for their own interests and projects than ever before, and they began to show the effects of strain and a prevailing sense of pressure! By Christmas time it was evident that the program was too heavy for all but four of the fifteen pupils.

Consequently it was then decided by the faculty that all but these four individuals should drop one study, the one in which the pupil was least interested or in which he had least success. After that time there was a great improvement in the quality of the work and the happiness of the group.

This year's experience will be valuable to the faculty in its bearing upon better planning for next year's work for these pupils and for the others, and it is hoped that the counselors next year will make this particular mistake impossible.

Before June we shall get from all the pupils in written form their individual reaction to this experiment. They will answer such questions as these:

1. What did you like about your course this year?

2. What in it do you think you would like to have continued?

3. From the point of view of your own progress what do you think would be important to change or eliminate.

They will be asked to make suggestions which might help us in general planning of the work for next year, not only for themselves but for the school, and to give reasons for any changes they would like to see made.

We shall get also the parents' reaction to the experiment as they have watched its effect upon their children.

This opportunity of the experiment for a better adapted high school course was explained fully to parents before school started last fall. They were all eager to have their children in this group. We have had their cooperation and constructive criticism from time to time during the year.

In closing I should like to say a word about the testing program—a kind of Swan Song. I want to voice my protest against the avalanche of tests (and particularly against the nature of the tests) which came from the Commission's Testing Committee last week. In the spirit of cooperation all of these tests were given to the group and consumed the time of pupils and teachers for two full days. It would seem valuable to give at reasonable intervals General Intelligence Tests of the nature of the Educational Bureau series, and also tests to discover vocational aptitudes or special gifts, and any which can be developed to measure character traits or to focus the attention of teachers upon desirable ethical growth in their pupils.

But the chief value of these tests should be to the schools giving them, not to the Research Bureau whose duty it would be to evaluate them. It is at least open to question whether there is not grave danger in giving standardized tests in subject matter fields at this stage of the experiment. I believe such tests would tend to warp and standardize the course both as to content and in teaching method.

It would seem that a desirable testing program should not consume too much time nor energy of the pupils or of the staff nor should it place too strong emphasis upon any given procedure. I am in favor of having full cumulative and anecdotal records kept of all pupils and submitted to the Directing Committee and of asking each school to develop its own subject matter tests during these

first years and of having these tests analyzed and evaluated by experts.

As I see it the value of the experiment depends upon setting each school free to develop its own program with reference only to the best all around development of the individuals taking part in it. Teachers should be encouraged to use new freedom for purposes which make this experiment valuable. Therefore, I believe the school should resist every attempt which tends to make the work uniform rather than experimental in character. The compiled data and the conferences among the schools and the constructive criticism of the Directing Committee should enable each school to learn from all the others (from their mistakes and successes) as well as from its own.

Lastly, I want to express appreciation to the Commission. I believe that every

school which has been honored with this opportunity to cooperate in the eight year experiment carries a heavy responsibility for its success. Each must be thankful for the leadership of Mr. Aikin and for what has been achieved in so short a time.

That this experiment could go forward so actively during this crisis in the Educational Affairs of the Nation is surely a matter for profound gratitude on the part of all of us. And that a Committee of the North Central Association is also actively studying the problem of experimental college entrance units and cooperating with the Progressive Education Committee is a cause for real rejoicing. We welcome on behalf of youth this combined search for a better adapted opportunity for individual progress and for a greater continuity in the educational process on both the high school and college levels.

C. AN INNOVATION IN A CLEVELAND SUBURB

R. B. PATIN

Principal Shaker High School, Shaker Heights, Cleveland, Ohio

For many years Shaker Heights High School has sent most of its graduates to college. In fact, last year, in a period of depression, of one hundred and thirty-five graduates, one hundred and thirteen were enrolled in forty-two institutions of higher learning over the country. Naturally that fact alone has caused Shaker to be forward thinking in its program and subject content. It was necessary to offer such courses as would meet a variety of requirements. Closely allied with this purpose was the ideal of good citizenship for its students. Furthermore, we believed that if the learning experience itself was good, it was good not only for the present but for the future.

For some years we have been working to develop "more fully in all students a strong sense of individual and social responsibility." We were grateful for the opportunity given us by the Commission

on the Relation of School and College, to experiment more fully by modifying the college entrance requirements for a group to "help each student shape his course so that it will be best fitted to his needs and so that his work will have meaning and significance for him."

Shaker High School is composed of eight hundred and fifty pupils in the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades. Due to the wide variety in the requirements, the courses are composed of electives to prepare for the particular requirements of these different institutions. For some time our class room activities have been on a laboratory basis with the unit-contract plan for the work. A number of talented pupils do practically all their work in the library and laboratories, having occasional conferences with the teachers and only attend classes when there is a discussion period.

In attaining the ideals of the progressive movement, the staff of the experiment in the Shaker High School has a two fold basis of integration. First: the manner of approach. All courses begin with a modern challenging topic and draw in the past by a natural comparative study. Social science begins with national and world crises of today such as those of the NRA and storm-centers of Europe. The studies lead back to crises and policies of the past. English begins with biographies of modern leaders and directs the pupils' attention to Lincoln, Caesar and Moses by comparison. The second basis of integration is the unity of content and emphasis. The aim is to have the pupil arrive at fundamental philosophies, in cause and effect and in permanent values. From Social Science studies come a basis of reasons for crises, methods of averting them, necessity of world horizon—a philosophy of enduring values and recurrent problems of nations! From English studies come the bases for leadership—a philosophy of enduring values and recurrent problems of the individual. Art study—emphasizing the cause and effect of artist and age, and qualities of greatness—comes to basic philosophy of permanent values in changing expressions. Mathematics show the underlying philosophy of logical thinking necessary to solution of individual problems and vital to world relationships.

Although the philosophies underlying all the subjects are similar and the content of social science, art and English represent parallel lines of thought, we have avoided artificial integration. Social science must emphasize a viewpoint which although touched upon in English, is not the viewpoint emphasized in English—English must maintain a certain literary excellency. Even though at the same time Social Science, art and English may be touching upon world crises, leadership revealed through biography and

through the arts, each subject must be based upon the best and most valuable material of its own, available in world situations, the finest literature—new and old—and the best examples in the development of art. The finest must not be sacrificed to the idea of integration.

Permit me to give you a concise picture of our present courses at Shaker. The general theme in social science has been "Community life among the Nations." First the Cuban situation was considered, then an analysis of President Roosevelt's program and its effect upon the people of the United States; third, a description and evaluation of conflicting forms of world government, followed naturally by international cooperation, past, present and future. The last two historical sources of modern governments and the present system of government in the United States today are outgrowths of the former studies.

In English the first unit deals with leadership, emphasizing first, the literature of the present and past which reveals these leaders; and second, the effect of certain leaders upon literature. Parallel with this theme, the art gave studies in the relations through forms of art and the effects upon the arts. The second unit has dealt with social injustice in three phases—first, social injustice toward the four million revealed in such literature as "Galsworthy" and "Oliver Twist"; second, the romance of labor revealed through Ruskin, Walt Whitman and modern essayists; and third, social revolution as shown in a "Tale of Two Cities."

In correlation with the geometry, a general consideration of methods of thinking form the basis of correlation between geometry and social science and with all other subjects. Frequent discussion periods are given to such topics as (1) need for independent thought, (2) pitfalls in thinking which involves preju-

dice, false analogies, hasty generalizations, faulty observations, insufficient observations; and (3) propaganda.

There are two groups of twenty-five pupils in this experiment. Group 1 has English for two consecutive fifty-minute periods on Monday, Wednesday and Friday. At the same time Group 2 is having social science. On Tuesday and Thursday Group 1 has Social Science, while Group 2 is in English. The following week the plan alternates. But one period a day is given to mathematics and one period per week for art. This leaves sufficient time for chosen electives. It might be interesting to know that Latin is considered primarily a course in social science, a background course, which illuminates modern society through study of ancient laws and customs, traditions and ideals; secondarily, it is a course in linguistics where the socio-historico-cultural background, stressed through translations of stories, involves the mastery of the essential features of language structure. In modern language, the interpretation of the manners, customs and life of nations through the literature of the respective countries is of paramount importance—the ability to read the language is more highly stressed than the skill in conversation.

Standardized tests for diagnostic purposes are given frequently in each subject to compare the work done under the new method with that of the old.

In keeping with the idea that education is "an enduring quest for meanings rather than credit accumulation," no grades are given. The parents are informed twice a semester by letter of the progress of each pupil. Each teacher writes a paragraph concerning the work of the pupil, and the paragraphs are assembled in the office into letter form. The teachers of the group meet twice a week at lunch to discuss problems which arise in relation to the experiment. The work of each pupil

with each teacher can be easily followed. One teacher expressed the thought that the elimination of grades set aside the personal element in making out grades and placed the teacher psychologically on a higher plane of helpfulness to the pupil.

The experiment has progressed far enough that certain reactions are worth recording. The parents who meet at least once a month to discuss the progress of the work and confer with us have requested that they be given the same course as the pupils, since the children are so much more intelligent on current problems of government and challenging topics of the day. They have reported that for the first time so many in the group are doing their school work for the pure love of finding out and that teachers are really leading by their inspiration. Of even more significance is the fact given by several parents that the tone of conversation in the home has changed since there are so many interesting topics of national importance which the children wish to discuss. It is most gratifying to meet this response on the part of the parents and to my mind is the real proof of the success of the work. For the pupils, according to parents and teachers,

1. It gives the pupil the idea that education is a matter of present day problems, the solution of which trains him for future participation in society. It does not place a taboo on the past but helps him to see that the past is only important as it assists in the solution of present day questions.

2. It opens many fields of interest to the students through the extensive reading—yet paradoxically in English, one theme is studied until it has the fruits of continuity and comparison.

3. It has melted away the self-consciousness and tension, which is often a handicap to self-expression, in the absorbing interest of expressing an individual idea.

4. The careful training in library work which is given in English and Social Science classes carries over so effectively that even in a subject

such as mathematics a teacher may assign a topic for research and have it adequately handled by the pupils. Students instinctively look beyond a lesson to something that correlates with it.

For the teachers:

1. A challenge and a stimulation.
2. It relieves the teacher of a monotonous grinding out of text book ideas.
3. Pupils tend to look upon the teacher as a partner in an enterprise rather than a task master.

These reactions lead us to believe that the school work is interesting and vital in the lives of the pupils and is certainly preparing them more richly for both college and life.

Plans are maturing for a better correlation of mathematics and science next year. The second year of algebra will be taught in the tenth grade instead of geometry, with a very definite tie-up with science. A more continuous and unified sequence of subject matter on a three year basis is planned for science. This move has been given impetus by a conference held in Cleveland during the recent conventions, where a few leaders in the science field met with the representatives of the schools enrolled in the experiment.

We hope to obtain better results during the coming year in one of the seven underlying ideas of the Commission in

this Plan—a broader range for the release of creative energies. This will be done through a course combining music, art and writing. Very definite progress has been made during the past year in creating art appreciation by having the pupils watch an artist paint before the class and a sculptor model in clay. Many wished to try some such creative expression. The results have been very gratifying and lead us to plan a better organized program which will give more time for this most important phase of education.

The experiment so far has been very stimulating to the regular work of the school. Teachers frequently visit the classes, and faculty meetings are devoted to the progress of the plan. I would say that it has revolutionized the work of some departments, and given great stimulus to all the teachers, whether engaged in the actual work or not. Furthermore it has proved that this type of work is even more valuable to the pupil who is not planning for college since it is most important that he should develop in high school a strong sense of individual and social responsibility. It is developing the pupil who plans for college by helping "to shape his course so that it will best fit his needs and that his work will have meaning and significance for him."

D. EXPERIMENTING IN A CHICAGO SUBURB

MATTHEW P. GAFFNEY

Principal New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois

SINCE previous speakers on the program have given the general purpose and nature of study, I shall omit this section of my paper and restrict it to a few definite illustrations of activities which have differed somewhat from those mentioned.

These are not all restricted by any means to the ninety freshman children in the experimental group. Some of the activities pave the way for these boys

and girls when they shall become upper classmen.

At the Bennington Conference in the summer of 1933, quite a point was made of the artificial wall which separates education in school from education through participation in the life of the community as a whole. Three activities at New Trier this past year have tended to cause these walls to vanish.

The first has been our community orchestra. For several years alumni have played with our high school orchestra at the Christmas concert. Their interest and enjoyment in so doing prompted our music director, Mrs. Homer Cotton, to start a community symphony orchestra, with certain members of the high school orchestra as a nucleus. The orchestra meets in the Winnetka Community House Monday evenings, and is this year, its first year, composed of about fifty per cent adults who are enjoying this outlet for their musical talent and about fifty per cent high school pupils. Competent musicians spend the first half of the evening working with sections—the string sections, the woodwinds, etc.—and the last half of the evening they combine. The orchestra plans to give its first public concert next year, and probably some of these will be in the various schools in the township.

A second community experience has been made possible by the cooperation of the University Settlement in Chicago. Members of a high school class in sociology have been assigned definite responsibilities on certain afternoons and Saturdays. The types of work done have included, (1) assisting with boys' gymnasium classes, (2) working on case records, (3) serving at the information desk, (4) assisting nurses at the infant welfare clinic, (5) driving the relief work truck, (6) conducting hikes (both girls and boys), (7) helping with office detail, (8) doing boys' club work in special fields such as taxidermy, ornithology, stamp collecting, working with radio, and (9) helping in sewing and cooking classes. The entire sociology class conducted a Christmas party for the clubs with which the individual members were working. The pupils who had these experiences understood the problems of the course because they had had first hand contact with these problems in the settlement

work. Their reports usually contained a statement to the effect that "All in all, the Polish children taught me more than I taught them."

A third project, getting slowly under way, is an attempt to link up the character building program of the school with that of the other organizations in our township that are engaged in religious education or character training, such as church schools and Scouts.

In the experimental group we have ninety superior pupils in the ninth grade, for whom we are planning a course that shall develop from year to year with greater unity than the regular course does at present, and a course in which subjects that bear on the problem under discussion are brought together. For example, English teachers, history teachers, music teachers, and art teachers contribute to the course and remove departmental walls. Mathematics and science teachers are working on similar possibilities.

The second semester of the ninth year the pupils of this study are freed from at least three periods a week of the English class when the other pupils are doing the grammar and composition work which we give freshmen second semester, and are given an opportunity for "free reading" under guidance for short or long periods of time.

For this group we have plans in their sophomore year for a fused course in history and English, with the foreign languages that the pupils study assuming the responsibility for the grammar that the English courses cover in the sophomore year.

"Experimenting" with us has not meant trying out any completely new or radical ideas. Rather it has meant putting into practice with small groups ideas that we consider good, and as their worth is shown in a small group extending this activity to the regular classes.

MINUTES OF THE ANNUAL MEETING¹

I. FRIDAY EVENING SESSION

April 20, 1934

THE Banquet Session convened at seven-forty o'clock, First Vice President B. L. Stradley, Ohio State University, presiding as Toastmaster.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Toastmaster Stradley: In order that this meeting may be as informal as possible, I shall say to you, "Hello, everybody."

While I was in the bathtub this morning rehearsing my speech the telephone rang and I was told that it was nine o'clock and the temperature was forty.

Last week the publicity man at our university in some way received one of these programs and he gave out a little publicity for the Columbus papers. He is a friend of mine. Otherwise I think there might have been something wrong about this. It was announced in the Columbus paper that Stradley would be postmaster of the city of Chicago.

One of my friends asked me if I had any funny stories. I told him I didn't know any. "Then," he said, "I will give you one on toastmasters. There was a fellow who ran into a prosecutor's office very much excited. He said, 'Here I am. Arrest me.'"

"The prosecutor said, 'What have you done?'"

" 'Well, I attended a banquet and shot and killed the toastmaster.' "

"The prosecutor said: 'Go over to the Treasurer's office. They are offering a

bounty over there for toastmasters.' "

Now I assure you, ladies and gentlemen, that this party will be a little different from the national party, the dinner party held in Washington. There will be more than one speaker. In fact, we have brought them from New England, from the South, from the Middle West and from the West, and we have a few here in Chicago.

The first speaker on the program represents New England. I don't know whether he will talk about the Boston Tea Party or New England dinners or those wooden nutmegs that Connecticut Yankees manufactured years ago, but at least I know that he will bring greetings from New England.

It is a pleasure to introduce Dean Otis E. Randall, of Brown University, representing the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Dean Randall.

REMARKS OF DEAN RANDALL

Dean Otis E. Randall: Mr. Toastmaster and Ladies and Gentlemen of the North Central Association: I am sure it is unnecessary for me to tell you that I am delighted to be the messenger from the New England Association in bringing you greetings and felicitations. I think it is a wonderful practice that we have adopted in exchanging delegates each year and I hope it will be perpetuated.

This is my second visit to you, Two years ago the President of the New England Association was taken ill, about which I was very much pleased and I attended in his place. I came out here

¹This is the second section of the minutes taken by Stenotype. The first section relating to the meeting on Friday afternoon, April 20, were published in the July number of the Quarterly.—THE EDITOR.

and had a delightful time. This year I happen to be President of the Association myself and I took no pains to find a substitute. It comes nearly being my third trip here. Last year I had an invitation and I went down to the bank to get some money to pay for my ticket and I found the bank closed. I had in my pocket just thirty cents and I couldn't get to Chicago on that amount. However I was consoled a little by hearing a story just at that time about thirty cents. This was given by Professor Phelps of Yale, Billy Phelps.

He said that he was rushing into the Grand Central Station in New York one time anxious to get a ticket for New Haven as soon as possible. He found a long line up to the window. He stood impatiently and while standing there a drunk came in and looked the line over. Seeing no reason why he should wait for the whole line to move up, he went right up to the window and put his money down. The ticket agent looked at the money and said, "Why, my dear fellow, where do you want to go?"

"I want to go to Duluth."

"Duluth? You can't go to Duluth for thirty cents."

The drunk, somewhat bewildered, said, "Well, will you please tell me where I can go for thirty cents?"

One of the men in the line spoke up and said, "Yes, I will tell you where you can go for less than thirty cents and I will pay your fare."

It is a nice thing for a New Englander to get across the Hudson once in a while and rub up against some real men and women, where you can comment on the weather and not feel that you have insulted your companions. New England, of course, has the reputation of being cold and conservative, and I think it deserves it. They say of a Harvard man (and I think you can say it of the New Englander) that you can tell him any-

where but you can't tell him anything. I am not in that class.

I am very, very glad to come out here and visit the West again. This feeling that no one can tell you anything I think is a very dangerous thing, and I have an illustration of how a man can be brought up suddenly. This happens to be with reference to a college president. A dean always likes to tell stories on college presidents. This is a true story. There was a president of one of our large institutions in the East (I won't tell you on which side of the Hudson) who was a man who came to that executive position with a feeling that he had one great asset and that was he understood young human nature. That was a great asset, of course. He told his dean that he knew human nature. The dean was having trouble in trying to get one of the students, who had been caught in some misdemeanor, to confess. He wouldn't confess. In his perplexity the dean went to the college president and told the story. The president said, "My dear fellow, you don't understand human nature. I want you to send that boy to me. I will show you how I can get a confession out of him."

So this boy was sent for to come to the president's office. In the meantime the president had taken pains to find out the boy's first name and pet name so he could address him properly. When the boy came in the president said, "Now, young man, I want to speak to you not as a college president to a student but as man to man. I want you to feel that you are on my level and then we can talk together as man to man. When you answer my questions please remember that. Will you do that?"

"Yes."

"Now, as man to man, I want to ask you: Did you have anything to do with that unfortunate occurrence of a few days ago?"

The student looked at the president and said, "Sir, if you insist that I speak to you as man to man and not as student to a college president, I will tell you it is none of your damned business."

The president rose to the occasion and made the only comment he could make, "Young man, you are entirely within your rights. You are dismissed."

I have enjoyed the meetings which I have attended since I came very, very much. I have enjoyed very much looking at those charts in the ball-room. I have been a student of mathematics for a great many years, but I must tell you that in looking over those charts and listening to the equations which have been named, particularly those which had fourteen variables, you have reached the limit of my knowledge and I back down. You have reached that point where Dean Haggerty can tell the colleges of your part of the country what they are worth. He doesn't hesitate to go to the University of Chicago or to Michigan or to Minnesota and say, "You are worth just so much."

Oh, I wish we could do that in New England. I take off my hat to you. You have had some trouble in reaching the position where you could speak like that to colleges. If I could live long enough to be President of the New England Association and have that power in addressing Yale and Harvard I would like to, but it won't come in my lifetime. I admire your power and your influence.

I must say one serious word before I sit down and I will take only a moment if the Toastmaster will permit me to say it. You have been accrediting colleges, you have been studying their value, and you are in a position where you can say this college is a good college and this college is not so good, and so forth. You have reached the point where I am going to raise a question: Are our colleges today contributing to that phase of edu-

cation which they most need? Don't misunderstand me. I appreciate as well as anybody what the colleges have done for the country, what they have done and what they are going to do, but I think in our efforts to educate, using good, ordinary, common sense to turn out men who are to go out into the world and shoulder the responsibilities of life, we have overlooked certain essential things in education. The reason for it is that we do not find in humanity in general the men whom we can count on, whom we can trust, whose opinions we can believe are honest. We have spent millions for gymnasiums and in developing the physique, we have spent millions more in training the mind, but there are certain qualities that are neither physical nor mental that we need today more than we ever needed them before. I say our colleges can spend some time in looking after the cultivation of those things, the building of character, the laying of foundation stones upon which these men can stand when they go out and face the problems of life squarely and honestly. Our depression and the clouds of war are due to the absence of those qualities and I tell you that the colleges in the present day have an opportunity and responsibility they can't overlook. I hope I haven't spoken too long.

Toastmaster Stradley: Dean Randall, in my home town there was a man who loved to talk about the weather. One night I heard him say he had often made the observation that if he lived through February he would live the rest of the year. He at that time was eighty years of age.

The next speaker represents the Association of the Middle States. A few years ago that association was known as the Association of Middle States and Maryland. Recently they dropped the state of Maryland, from the title, not from the list of states. That association also in-

cludes Panama and continental Europe. How I would love to be an inspector in that association.

I take pleasure in presenting Professor E. D. Grizzell, representing the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States.

REMARKS OF DR. GRIZZELL

Professor E. D. Grizzell: Considering Dean Randall as an after-dinner speaker, I am neither a dean nor a college president. That reminds me, of course, of the definition or rather the description of the dean and the college president. The dean is a man who doesn't know enough to be a professor and knows too much to be president.

Talking about college presidents, you folks really missed the wit of our Association in not having President Lewis speak to you last year. Perhaps he did, but he is particularly good as an after-dinner speaker. I remember an occasion on which his wit was rather pointed. We were having an executive meeting and were discussing a certain hotel for the meeting of the Association. I said, "Well, I hope we won't go to a certain hotel because I stayed there one time and have received a letter every month since from their wideawake publicity expert."

President Lewis said, "Well, why didn't you pay your bill?"

I made my speech before, four or five years ago and also two years ago, Mr. Toastmaster, but I shall have to repeat just a little of that speech. At that time I tried to call attention to some of the rather excellent things you were doing, and I shall have to point again to those same things. I have been very much interested in the work particularly of those commissions which are more closely related to my own field, and also of your Commission on Higher Education which has been doing such an excellent piece of work.

As a reference to historical fact, I call attention to the rather great importance of the published work which your Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula turned out a year ago. I think that that is excellent evidence of the fine work that that commission has been doing. I think it is the finest work that you have done and I think it has shown exceptional statesmanship. I agree with Dean Randall in what he says about it except that I might not agree with him with reference to the two New England colleges he picked out. I think that that commission has rendered a great service to American higher education, up to this point, and I think the opportunities for service are even greater in the promotion of the program which they have indicated in their report this week. I should like to commend also the North Central Association for the unanimous support it seems to have for the proposed study of secondary school standards. It means that we are going to be able to do a piece of work similar to that done by the Higher Commission which we think is of very vital importance for American secondary education. I thank you.

Toastmaster Stradley: It is my honor now to present the next speaker representing the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, one of our own men, a man one time Dean of Northwestern, now President of the University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky.

President Kent, representing the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

REMARKS OF PRESIDENT KENT

President Raymond A Kent: Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: I don't want anybody to misunderstand who I am. The program says that President Few is to be here. I want you to know that I am not President Few. Although I am most happy to be here at

this time, I am not so happy to speak. I note that these two gentlemen who have preceded me on the program have been well trained in the matter of fraternal delegates. I should rather call them walking delegates, according to the experience which they admit to have had. This is my first experience of this kind and being among friends I hope I am not imposing in saying that. I trust that you will bear with me.

The Southern Association, which I don't know much about except as a name, is composed of 130 institutions of higher education, scattered from the Ohio on the north to New Orleans and Galveston on the south, and from the Father of Waters on the west to Fort Sumter on the east. It has in these colleges institutions which enroll from 100 students to 7500, with an average of 1000 each, rather small institutions on the average. We have none that has any elaborate program such as is represented in certain institutions of well renown. Perhaps it is because we are sober, at least in the light of the story which President Angell of Yale tells on himself. He said that at three o'clock one morning he was awakened by a loud knocking at his front door. Soon he appeared at the door in a bathrobe and found a young man. The young man said to him, "I wish you would tell me about the new house plan."

"I haven't time to tell you about the new house plan."

"Oh, yes, I want to know about it now."

"Some other time you can come around and see me."

"No, I don't want it some other time. I want to know now."

"Well," said President Angell, "come around at eleven o'clock tomorrow morning."

"No, it won't do at all tomorrow morning."

"Why wouldn't it do?"

"Well, tomorrow morning at eleven o'clock I will be sober and I wouldn't give a damn about it."

Or perhaps it is a misjudgment of ours to say we are sober; maybe we are dead. According to the article that recently appeared in one of the alleged intellectual journals of the country, we are in our membership widely representative of what is called our intellectual graveyard, the small college.

I am reminded, after reading that article, of an incident in a film which is running, maybe you have seen it, called "Wild Cargo," Frank Buck's experience over in Sumatra capturing wild animals. You who have seen it remember that the simple device used to catch a certain kind of monkey was to take a cocoanut, open it, that is, to make a small hole at the one end where it was soft, pour out the milk, put in some rice, tie a rope to the cocoanut, tie the other end to a stake and put the stake in the ground so that the monkey can't pull it out. Pretty soon the monkey comes down out of the tree, as you see in the picture, and thrusts his hand, if we can call it that, into the cocoanut and wraps it around some rice, but he can't pull the hand out. All that is done to capture him is just to come and take him because his one idea in life is to keep hold of the rice. The rest of his future, for all his remaining days, is spent in slavery to one idea.

I come from a section of the country which may be said to be living in a historical background. We are still going to the oldest college established west of the Allegheny Mountains, in its original status a branch, using that term rather in a loose way, of the University of Virginia.

Transylvania College, established in 1780, at Lexington, Kentucky, one of the earliest, perhaps the earliest, institution that was subsidized as a state university. It isn't that now.

We have great historical background in some of our customs and practices. We still read and believe in the King James' Version. We still use in certain sections that long-barrelled mountain rifle, and it does terribly effective business in the blood feuds that still go on until families are wiped out. But there is one place in the mountains where a minister who has lived in this little backwoods community for a number of years will take you to a shed and will point out to you a large collection of rifles and knives and tell you the story if you ask him. He said, "I was down here in missionary church work and these people were killing themselves off with these feuds. One day I got them all together in town, down from the mountains, and said, "Why don't you quit this business and do something for your children who are being deprived of their fathers and their brothers because you people suddenly at a given time commence to hate each other and then kill each other off until you get a given band all demolished?"

They put their arms in a pile and they associated themselves together and started a school, and that school is actually operating and the pile of arms can be seen at this date.

We are a section of the country where we have certain profound occupations. One of them is religion. We work hard at it. We don't, all of us, live it but we all work at it. We not only make whisky but we use it for its originally intended purpose. But there is something else I think we work at harder than either of these, and that is politics. We eat it, we sleep it, and we drink it. It is said that Jim Farley comes down for special tutoring before he goes into a battle with Tammany. It doesn't make any difference which political party is in power. I live in a city which has the distinction of having had the Ambassador to Berlin under President Hoover, and when

Hoover went out they just selected another man from our city and sent him over to the Court of St. James. Which ever party is in, it doesn't make any difference to us; it is all politics.

We are a country of contrasts, where the negro, in fact, in many sections is disfranchised, and there is more done for him, specifically, in education than perhaps in any other section of the United States, as is attested by the fact that at least one of the leading and outstanding universities of the United States is a negro university located in the territory of the Southern Association.

We are a country of contrasts in that you may go on wide, well-paved, cemented roads and pass by cabins, one-room, without windows, with only the floor that nature provides, with children running around, barefoot all months of the year, and in the summer literally without any clothes on up to eight and ten years of age, with \$22,000,000 in one state back of the road program, where the number of children in any given cabin is exceeded only by their ignorance and by the amount of physical ills that afflict them.

Contrasts galore! We have in one state the birthplace of Jefferson Davis, who attended the aforementioned Transylvania College and West Point, and in the same state the birthplace of Abraham Lincoln, who was tutored at one end of an axe, by his two mothers, by his backwoods companions, with an inordinately active mind that had accessible about half a dozen books during the years in which he was growing.

We are said to have the most illiterate population in certain of our sections, and certain of our states rate the lowest educationally, and yet from our territory there came such men in earlier years as Thomas Jefferson, and in later years as Woodrow Wilson. He too came out of one of those intellectual graveyards.

Where we have more than our share of lynchings, we have a committee of citizens against lynching, headed by a chairman, a relatively young man, born in the South of Southern parentage, educated in the South, running a Southern newspaper, whose voice speaks out in no uncertain terms again and again for the rights, political and civic, of the negro people in the South.

We are conservative, we are told, and yet if you wish to read a thrilling narrative of the progress of intellectual activity, I would suggest the volume by Mr. Dabney on *Liberalism in the South*. Mr. Dabney is also a newspaperman of Richmond, Virginia. That will give you a picture of intellectual progress such as any part of any country should be proud of.

Yes, we are conservative. We believe in some homely things with respect to education. We believe that educational institutions and agencies should not fix, should not attempt to fix on any given generation a belief that the social order of that generation is the last word in community or national organization.

By the same token, we believe that no educational agency should attempt to fix on any upcoming generation of children and youth the idea that a new special type of social order is the last word, but that education should seek, as has already been well expressed here this evening in a slightly different tone, the development of those characteristics and faculties in youth which shall give them, when adults, the ability to choose intelligently and unselfishly and wisely.

We have watched with great interest the work of this Association in its reorganization of standards of accrediting of higher educational institutions. We believe that you have made a contribution unequalled in the history of higher education in this country. But we believe that there is another step, a further step to be taken, not perhaps primarily an

activity of an accrediting agency, but there is a place to go, if I may be permitted to use that phrase, in higher education. That is now, as I understand, your concept, that the institution shall be given individuality, shall be permitted some leeway with respect to its own goals and its own methods of achieving those goals. That same principle must inevitably come and be made a part of the administration of individuals within the institution whom we call students, and that instead of operating on the basis of that which is the old traditional methods of determining achievement and progress and distinction, may I say, we shall make it possible that these youngsters may be judged according to those same traits which finally give them distinction, so that the training which is given them in college may have some relation to the activities which they shall carry on later in the contributions which they may make to the community of which they are a part.

It is a very great pleasure to me to be here this evening and to see so many of the men whom I have met and with whom I have worked in the past. It is a double pleasure for me to bring to you from another association which is trying to do the same sort of thing as you are doing here, the greetings, the good will, the congratulations upon the progress which you have made.

MISCELLANEOUS INTRODUCTIONS AND REMARKS

Toastmaster Stradley: We have had some of the right and now we turn to the left wing. I wish to present to this audience the first lady of this Association, Mrs. Wriston. Mrs. Carrothers. Mrs. McComb, the wife of the financial baron of this organization.

Early in my career in the inspection of colleges in this Association I had occasion to visit Lewis Institute of this city.

I spent the morning in the usual work and at noontime the President took me to lunch. Then he said to me, "Let's go over to the house and we will rest a while." We went over there and rested for a couple of hours. That is the way to take care of an inspector. Take him away from the college over to the house. He taught me one thing that day, that administrators should go over to the house and sit down and rest and take a little time out.

Yesterday when Dr. Judd was speaking and referred to President Carman I thought I should ask him to come here tonight and be my guest at this dinner. He is one of the oldest members of this Association. I take great pleasure in presenting President Carman, of Lewis Institute.

Two other people in this audience have attended these meetings over a number of years from the city of St. Louis. Mr. and Mrs. Bryan. Will you please stand?

We have a distinguished visitor here this evening who has helped this Association, who believes in this Association, who has used his good offices to help us in many ways. I take great pleasure in presenting Mr. Howard J. Savage, Secretary of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. I will appreciate it if he will say a few words. Mr. Savage.

Mr. Howard J. Savage: Mr. Toastmaster of the City of Chicago: I find myself, ladies and gentlemen, in a somewhat anomalous position. I deny first that I am William Lyon Phelps, I deny that I am President Few, and I deny that I am any Buck, Frank or Gene. Furthermore, the anomaly continues when I am informed that there are no reporters present and I can say what I choose, and I really have very little to say.

I can bring you and do bring you the heartiest greetings of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching,

and its best wishes for your continued success with these new methods of work which you have introduced at this important Annual Meeting.

Toastmaster Stradley: The President of this Association hails from the state of Wyoming. I did not know him very well until last year and quite recently I thought I would look up his record. I therefore opened a book and I found he was born in Laramie, Wyoming, that he had attended college at Middletown, Connecticut, at that famous Wesleyan University, turning out such men as Bishop Welch, Dean Judd, Thorndike, and many, many others. I found also that he has been quite successful in a financial way, not for himself but for other universities. I find that he was secretary of their endowment campaign and I understand he was successful in raising \$3,000,000 for old Wesleyan.

We are very proud of him as the president of one of the fine liberal arts colleges. I am told that he is a good judge of men and surrounded himself with capable faculty members. I think that is one qualification that a president should possess. It is said that Henry W. Longfellow after graduating from Bowdoin called at New York University where there was a vacancy. He conferred with the proper officials but didn't get the job and some obscure man was appointed and what was New York University's loss was Harvard's gain.

I take great pleasure in presenting President Henry M. Wriston, President of Lawrence College, and also President of this Association, who will address us on the subject of "Differentiation of Function." President Wriston. [President Wriston's paper appeared in the October issue of the QUARTERLY—THE EDITOR.]

Toastmaster Stradley: May I at this time introduce two men who have rendered distinguished service to this As-

sociation? I wish that both of them would stand.

Mr. John C. Hanna, Supervisor of High Schools, of Illinois, member of the Secondary Commission.

Professor J. D. Elliff, of Missouri, Chairman of the State Committee and also of the Standards Committee.

It is said that one of President Eliot's predecessors was accustomed to conclude his morning prayers in the Harvard chapel by asking the Lord to bless Harvard College and all inferior institutions.

When Dr. Zook was Secretary of our Commission I know how he worked for our Association, and I used to think if I could hear any of his prayers I would hear him say, "O Lord, bless the North Central Association and all inferior associations."

We are proud of him in Ohio, and I know this Association is proud of him. He has gone to Washington to fight the battle for the youth of America. He may lose a battle or two but I assure you, ladies and gentlemen, that he will win the war.

I take great pleasure in presenting our good friend, Dr. George Frederick Zook, United States Commissioner of Education, who will speak on the subject, "Our Youth Problem." Dr. George F. Zook. [The audience arose and applauded.]

Dr. George Frederick Zook: My friends, I assure you that I appreciate very much what the Chairman of the meeting has said. I have always thought of the North Central Association as being a very effective organization, but yesterday I concluded that since I had left it, it had become even more effective, because the committee which had in charge this study on the new criteria for the measurement of institutions of higher education certainly made a program long enough to put you all to sleep, so that, at the end of the long day,

when the motion to accept this report at the end of three or four years was put, so far as I can recall there wasn't a single dissenting vote.

I am very happy indeed that there has come at last the conclusion to this work. It is one in which I have had a deep personal interest for these last five or six years. I believe that this report, as I said to you yesterday morning, is quite revolutionary in character, so far as the accrediting movement in this country is concerned. It is fair notice to all the world that, so far as the North Central Association is concerned, it means henceforth to attempt to identify an institution on the basis of quality rather than quantity. I feel certain that the influence of this report will be great throughout the United States, and I trust that it may reach, as there is now evidence that it has already reached, the secondary schools so that they, too, may attack an even larger problem. I believe they will come through with a report some years hence which will be just as revolutionary in character and as fine, if not a better contribution than has been made in connection with the study these last three or four years in higher institutions.

So I bid you goodspeed in this new venture which seems to me to have placed the Association again in the forefront of all the work that is being done in this country along this line.

Tonight I am going to talk to you about a problem which, it seems to me, is beginning to confront us in ways that we scarcely have realized until a very short time ago, and I have called it "Our Youth Problem."

Several days ago there came into my office a very competent man, interested in city and town planning. For a number of weeks he had been in Washington working with what we know as the National Planning Board, with the idea that through the federal and state plan-

ning boards it would be possible to develop ways and means by which each locality would immediately take up the problem of making a careful, comprehensive plan for community development with appropriate space set aside for industrial business, parks, schools and recreational facilities for the long future, all integrated into one beautiful and serviceable scheme.

To anyone who is acquainted with the Topsylike, planless methods by which our communities have grown up, the case for doing something to solve this problem in thousands of uninviting localities throughout the land seems very clear indeed. But my friend had gradually come to realize that no matter how competent or how anxious any federal or state planning commission might be, with a desire to assist in these plans, there was no hope for action in any community except through popular consent and desire. He had therefore gradually come to realize that he must turn to the slower process of education in order to attain his goal. Even under the best of circumstances it is not likely that this man will see in his lifetime this excellent goal attained.

So it is with every great permanent

social reform. The groundwork must be laid in the schoolrooms of Chicago, Kansas, and faraway Arizona. The opportunity and the obligation to mold the civilization of the future is an obligation which belongs to this generation, the same as it has belonged to generations gone by, and such responsibility does not belong exclusively to school boards and administrators. It is shared by the humblest teachers.

I have in mind, therefore, as I said in the beginning, to discuss with you one of our common problems with which we as school administrators and teachers need to be deeply concerned. I have referred to it as "Our Youth Problem." [Dr. Zook read his prepared paper. This paper appears elsewhere in this issue of the *QUARTERLY*.—THE EDITOR.]

Toastmaster Stradley: Dr. Zook, we are deeply indebted to you for your participation in this program, and for your help in solving the problem of the youth of our beloved country. In behalf of this Association we pledge you our support.

The meeting is now adjourned. [The meeting adjourned at nine thirty-five o'clock.]

II. SATURDAY MORNING SESSION¹

April 21, 1934

THE meeting convened at nine o'clock, President Wriston presiding.

President Wriston: Will the third session of the North Central Association be in order? The program this morning is in charge of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education, of which President Gage of Coe College is the Chairman.

The first item on the program is the report of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education, which will be given by the Secretary, Dean George A. Works, of the University of Chicago. [Dean

Works read the report of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education. This report appeared in the July issue of the *QUARTERLY*.—THE EDITOR.]

President Wriston: The next item on the program is the report for the Committee on Revision of Standards. A statement will be made by President Gage, the Chairman of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education. President Gage.

President H. M. Gage (Coe College):

¹This is the third section of the minutes of 1934.
—THE EDITOR.

Mr. Chairman, as some of you may have noticed, I have had a whispered conversation with your President. In this conversation I told him that it was unnecessary for me to make the report that I had prepared. He said that if I was sincere in that statement he would acquiesce. Therefore, I am standing before you now to tell him and you that I was perfectly sincere in what I said. This place was given to me on the program because we did not know in advance the situation that would prevail when the report would come to you for your final approval. As a matter of fact, the research staff has done its work, has reported to the Committee of Fifteen. The Committee of Fifteen has made its report to the Commission. The Commission has adopted the policy and sent it to the Executive Committee. The Executive Committee has presented it to the Association and it has been adopted.

The material that I prepared has all been presented to you and therefore will appear in the record. I have given something of the history of the proceedings which led up to the appointment of the committee and some description of the work.

All of that material was presented to you by President Coffman, the Chairman of the General Committee, and by Dean Haggerty in his introduction to the report. It only remains for me to make two comments which have come to my mind not in advance but by reason of comments and questions addressed to me since I came to this meeting.

These criteria of colleges have been presented to us as avenues of aspirations and we have been told, in effect, many at least feel that they have been told, that hereafter we may apply to ourselves in all seriousness that word of Robert Browning: "... the sin I impute to each frustrate ghost is the unlit lamp and the ungirt loin ..."

If only our loins are girt and we are ready for action, and if our lights are burning we are hereafter to be relieved from the tyranny of things.

It is therefore in point to remind you, as the Secretary of the Commission has frequently reminded me, that the basis of fact on which our judgment of quality must rest will be a more elaborate basis than the facts which seemed to justify our conformity to the old objective minimum standards.

This final word: It was said to me last evening as coming, I think, from the Secondary Commission, that the operation and the application of these criteria would mean the establishment within the Association and especially within the Commission of a bureaucracy, and an expensive sort of bureaucracy. My simple reply to that this morning is that it is the intention of the Commission and of the Board of Review to secure competent service, trained and experienced in actual work of this Association, and not only in the Association but in institutions within the territory, and it is not the intention of the Commission or the Board of Review, and it is not the intention of the Association to establish a permanent paid secretariat.

I now leave the report with you mindful of the point of view that was expressed by Dr. Judd in his interesting discussion of the report. What he said then reminds me of Jacob's ladder, which, to be sure, reached the stars but rested on the ground. He reminded us that this report is rooted and grounded in reality, present and past reality. It reminded me of an inverted, upside-down idea of time. With these criteria adopted, we now go to meet a future, not the sort of future that comes rushing at us from in front, but the sort of future that goes streaming over our heads from behind. "What of good the past has had remains to make the new time glad."

President Wriston: By common consent, President Gage is given leave to print that.

This Association is a continuing member of the American Council on Education and each year we have a report from our delegates to that body. The report will be given by Dr. Charles H. Judd, of the University of Chicago.

Dr. Charles H. Judd (University of Chicago): Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: The American Council on Education has some 22 constituent members and in the neighborhood of 250 institutional members. The North Central Association has been a member of the American Council from the early days of the organization.

In its original organization the American Council declared that its special interest was education at the higher level, and that statement was incorporated in the original Constitution adopted by the American Council. At the annual meeting last May the proposal was made that that particular clause which defined the special interest of the American Council in higher education be stricken from the Constitution, with a view to expressing the intent of the Council to undertake activities in the whole range of education. A further proposal was made for amendments to the Constitution. The most important other recommendation made at the annual meeting last May was that the institutional membership be enlarged so as to make possible the inclusion not only of higher institutions but of secondary schools and school systems. A third proposal of minor importance, which I mention, however, in order that it may be in your minds, was for reorganization of a committee which for some years past has been operating within the North Central Association, the Committee on Plans and Policies. This committee has had frequent meetings during the last three years for the

purpose of discussing the general problems of American education, or the problem of American education, or for the purpose of devising projects and plans, projects for investigation and plans for constructive organization, that might ultimately be made the basis of action on the part of the American Council.

The annual meeting did not see fit to accept the various recommendations that had been made by the Executive Committee for the changes that I have suggested as recommended changes in the Constitution of the Council. During the interval between the May meeting, which is the annual meeting, and a special meeting which was called in January, all of these problems were once more subject to consideration by the Executive Committee and a discussion by the members of the American Council.

At a special meeting held during the month of January two affirmative actions were taken by the American Council. The first action was to eliminate from the Constitution of the American Council specific reference to higher education. A formulation was adopted which had earlier been incorporated into the articles of incorporation of the American Council. Those statements that now appear in the first clause of the Constitution of the American Council make it perfectly clear that it is the intent of this Council to undertake activities in all of the levels of American education.

The Council therefore invites the co-operation of the secondary schools and of school systems, and of course hopes to continue its intimate relationship with the institutions of higher education. The purpose of this change is to expand the range of activities of the American Council. At the annual meeting, as I have already said, the step was taken on enlarging the scope of institutional membership, so the present first clause in the Constitution expresses in another form

the spirit and intent of the action taken at the May annual meeting.

The Committee on Plans and Policies was somewhat reorganized. That committee has, as I said before, operated for three years but it has never been before the American Council as a whole for the purpose of consideration. It was organized on a subvention that was given for the specific purpose of bringing together people who at times have served on that committee in order that the experiment might be tried of discovering whether such a committee could devise plans that would be of importance for the general Council. The committee now has been accepted by the American Council as an integral part of its organization, with a provision that its membership shall be, from year to year, renewed by joint action of the committee itself and the Executive Committee of the American Council. The reason for this special form of action is that it expects to bring into the Committee on Plans and Policies those representatives of the educational system who are individually competent to discuss the larger plans of American education. It was not thought that it would be desirable to have this committee a representative committee, in the ordinary sense of the term. No effort is being made in the P. & P. Committee to include the various contingent or institutional members. The committee, therefore, by virtue of its somewhat peculiar function, was thought to be a committee that might properly have the type of organization to which I have referred.

The American Council, then, is launching at this time a broadened program and an enlarged line of activities. There are likely to occur in the near future certain reorganizations in the central office of the American Council. That comes naturally because some of the members of the staff have reached the age of retirement, and the next representa-

tive of the North Central Association will be in a position, I take it, to report to you those changes that are now being contemplated and are being worked out in the central office staff.

The North Central Association has been represented as an active member of the American Council for a number of years and has had membership on the Executive Committee during practically the whole period of the reconstructive work which has been going on and which I have attempted to report.

President Wriston: The next speaker prefers to speak without the microphone. He says that it makes his voice sound as though he were speaking down a rain barrel and makes him homesick for his Hoosier home. If he can be heard, therefore, we will set the microphone aside, but if he cannot be heard he will be subject to the discipline of nostalgia and we will set it up again.

I take great pleasure in introducing not only a distinguished but a distinctive member of this Association, once its President, recently Chairman of the Committee on Revision of Standards, President Lotus D. Coffman, of the University of Minnesota, who will speak on "Higher Education and Its Present Responsibilities." President Coffman.

President Lotus D. Coffman: Mr. Chairman and Members of the Association: The suggestion that I speak without the microphone came from the President. I concurred in it, however, for there has been an unnaturalness in the voices of those who have spoken all during the morning. I should like to say at the very outset that the President has not speeded up this morning's program for the purpose of giving me all the rest of the morning. I shall finish in a reasonable time. [President Coffman read his prepared paper. This paper was printed in the July issue of the *QUARTERLY*.—THE EDITOR.]

President Wriston: This afternoon the fourth general session of the Association will be held punctually at two o'clock. It will be in charge of the Commission on

Secondary Schools and the address of the afternoon will be given by Dr. Judd. This session is adjourned. [The meeting adjourned at ten forty-five o'clock.]

III. SATURDAY AFTERNOON SESSION¹

April 21, 1934

THE meeting convened at two-ten o'clock, President Wriston presiding.

President Wriston: Will the fourth general session of the Association come to order?

The program this afternoon is in charge of the Commission on Secondary Schools, of which Mr. George E. Carrothers, of the University of Michigan, is Chairman. We will first have the report of the business transacted by this Commission. The report will be made by the Secretary, Mr. H. G. Hotz, of the University of Arkansas. [Mr. Hotz read the report of the Secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools. This report was printed in the July issue of the QUARTERLY.—THE EDITOR.]

President Wriston: I am going to call upon the Retiring Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools for a few remarks upon the proposed study for revision of secondary school standards. Mr. Carrothers.

Mr. George E. Carrothers (University of Michigan): Mr. Chairman, I should like to make a suggestion that one place in the report rendered be changed, to use the words "to assist in financing" the study because the request for money from this Association is for only a part of the amount needed.

More than a year ago we began to talk definitely about the need for studying the standards for accrediting secondary schools. There was considerable interest manifested here very nearly a year ago. After consulting the other regional as-

sociations, we found they had just as great an interest in this work as we had in the North Central. Under the leadership of Dr. Zook, the Commissioner of Education of the United States, we met in Washington and planned somewhat the study we shall soon undertake. We now have a committee of twenty-one, scattered throughout the United States, representing the six regional associations, that is planning to use the study that has already been made by the Commission on Higher Institutions, and to make use of information that may be obtained now from the National Survey of Secondary Education just so recently completed, and to make use of other matters and materials that are available at this time, and with those things at hand start a study which will concern the 4600 or 4700 secondary schools throughout the United States. We feel the need for a better means of accrediting these schools, or, putting it another way, we feel very definitely the need for a better way of selecting the good schools.

I said in the Commission meeting that one of the schools refused in Michigan this year is better than ten or twelve or fifteen that I might pick out that are already on the accredited list, but it happened to violate in one particular a standard that has already been set up. We are not always selecting the good schools and we want to do that.

In addition to that, we want to set up our criteria. I think we are going to get rid of the word "standard," as was mentioned by Dean Haggerty. I think we are going to be able to stimulate and help

¹This is the fourth and last set of minutes of the general program.—THE EDITOR.

the secondary schools that want to progress and develop in this work much better than we have been able to help them heretofore. We have been acting too much as a police force and not enough as a friend and helper. We should like to do that. We should like to go one step further, perhaps many steps further than the Commission on Higher Institutions has gone, but one in particular. In addition to eliminating the word "standard," we should like to eliminate the word "inspector," and find a better word to use than that.

I have a feeling that these people scattered throughout the United States, representing six regional accrediting associations, will, in the course of the next two or three years, have something very definite to propose. I want especially to bespeak the cooperation, the active cooperation and the active help of every principal of the secondary schools in the whole United States. Send in your statements, send in your suggestions, join us in the conference and study. We want your help. We need your help because you are the ones who are more concerned than those of us who happen to be in the department of secondary education in the colleges and universities. I know you will give that.

In closing, I want to say again that all I have helped to accomplish could not have been accomplished had it not been for Secretary Hotz who knows the work since time was and who will keep on, I hope, in his work as Secretary of our Commission for twenty or thirty or forty years, because he knows it so well and is so efficient in his work. I want to speak that word of commendation because he has carried the burden of the work for these two years. I thank you for the opportunity I have had.

President Wriston: The Constitution provides for an annual meeting at such time and place as may be determined by

the Association. The Executive Committee acts as the committee to make recommendations to you, and I will call upon the Secretary, Mr. Clevenger, who will read the report on time and place. [Secretary Clevenger read the report of the Committee on Time and Place.]

Secretary Clevenger: Mr. President, I move adoption of this report.

President Wriston: You have heard the report of the Executive Committee, naming this hotel for the Fortieth Annual Meeting on April 10, 11, 12, and 13, 1935. [The motion was regularly seconded.]

President Wriston: It has been moved and seconded that that date and this hotel be set as the time and place of the next annual meeting. Do you wish to discuss it? If not, those who are in favor will say "aye"; opposed, "no." It is so ordered. The motion is carried.

At the first general session the Committee on Nominations nominated for President Mr. B. L. Stradley, of Ohio State University; for First Vice President, Mr. R. M. Hughes, Iowa State College; for Second Vice President, Mr. L. N. McWhorter, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, of Minneapolis; and for Members of the Executive Committee, Principal E. A. Spaulding, of Gary; and Professor W. C. Reavis, of the University of Chicago.

No additional nominations have been filed. It is therefore in order to instruct the Secretary to cast the unanimous ballot for those who have been nominated.

Mr. Carrothers: Mr. Chairman, I so move. [The motion was regularly seconded.]

President Wriston: It has been moved and seconded that the Secretary be instructed to cast the unanimous ballot of those who are present for the persons named. Those who will so order will say "aye"; opposed, "no." It is so ordered.

Secretary Clevenger: Mr. President,

the Secretary casts the ballot for those nominated.

President Wriston: The ballot having been cast, they are declared elected. Is there other business of a general nature to come before this body. If there is no further business, I will call upon the speaker of the afternoon. Those of you who attended the sessions last year were impressed, I think, as all of us were, with the address which closed the sessions of the North Central Association. Therefore, when we were building this program for this year the one fixed star upon our program was the Saturday afternoon speaker, and I am glad at this time to introduce that leader for so many years in the affairs of the Association, Professor Charles H. Judd, Head of the Department of Education, University of Chicago, who will speak upon "Education and the General Social Order." Professor Judd. [Professor Judd read his prepared paper. This paper appeared in the July issue of the *QUARTERLY*.—THE EDITOR.]

President Wriston: It is with great pleasure that at this moment I introduce to you the new President of the Association, Mr. Stradley.

President-Elect Stradley: Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: I am infinitely indebted to you for this manifestation of confidence. With the assistance of the officers of this Association and the officers of the Commissions, we will move forward with vigor and enthusiasm. As Dean Judd has said, we

look forward. We do not belong to the past; the past belongs to us. Ingratitude is the most unpardonable of sins, and therefore, Mr. President, I want to say to you that the work of this Association, I believe, has been carried on under your able direction with success. Furthermore, it has been most interesting and stimulating. I thank you.

President Wriston: I will not linger long in the wings, but some of you may have noticed that we do not elect a Secretary or a Treasurer. Those officers are elected by the Executive Committee and are not elected annually but during good behavior. The behavior of Treasurer McComb and of Secretary Clevenger is so impeccable that they bid fair to go on forever in giving us a stable administration.

In retiring I want to express my gratitude to the members of the Executive Committee, and particularly to the three who retire, Mr. Reed, who served as President last year and whose advice and counsel has been of great value, Mr. Carrothers, who has been Chairman of the Secondary Commission, and whose enthusiasm for the new standards they are to adopt has been a constant contribution, and Dean Stout, of Northwestern, who has served as a wise counsellor.

There being no other business to come before this Thirty-ninth Annual Meeting, I declare the meeting adjourned. [The meeting adjourned at three-five o'clock.]

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